The Nation.

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The Week.

The Senate resolutions, as modified and then assented to by the House, implicitly take from the President not only the power of recognizing foreign nations, but of commanding the army. The first resolution declares that the people of Cuba are free and independent. The second directly addresses a demand ("hereby") to a foreign government to abandon a portion of its territory, and to send away its naval forces from a certain portion of the ocean. In other words, it takes without the least hesitation the position of the French Directory in 1793. The third resolution "directs" the President as General of the United States forces to carry this ridiculous and un-American resolution into effect, apparently without any communication to the foreign government of what is going to happen to it. After this, all discussion of the grammar of the resolutions would be ridiculous. It would be like descanting on the want of courtesy of a man who had just committed a murder. The majority of the Senate to which we owe this lawlessness is made up of the very same class of persons who caused a panic in 1893 by opposition to the silver legislation, and have since supported the Bryan movement for a silver currency and for general disorganization of the government. In short, we are now suffering most seriously for having years ago admitted to the Senate a most dangerous class as representatives of morally fictitious States. This class have for years been engaged in the use of their legislative powers for purposes of pecuniary speculation. There is very little respect felt in the community for their character, there is none at all for their minds. Their resolutions have the air of having been written either by men who hate the American Government and wish to use their power to throw it into confusion, or by foreigners who are unacquainted with our Constitution, or question the force of its provisions.

The politics in this war business becomes clearer every day. Senator Hale of Maine gave expression to the feeling which prevails among Republicans as to what their party is to get out of it when he said on Saturday that, "if war must needs come, its conduct will not be in the hands of the Democratic party; it will not be by the Democratic party that the flag of the United States will be borne; that great soldier and statesman, the President of the United States, will conduct the war and bring it to a successful end, and Senators, many of whom to-day have been free with their comments and criticisms of the President, when we are found in the situation that war is upon us, will be found opposing and impeding and obstructing *the march of the President and the Republican party* and of all good, conservative citizens in carrying on that war." Senator Platt of New York is even franker about the matter. After saying that war seemed "inevitable," and that there would be compensations for its horrors in the burial of the animosities growing out of the civil war and in the enthusiastic union of the people, he "came right down to business" in this final statement as to the great compensation for war: "It would prevent the Democratic party from going into the next Presidential campaign with 'Free Cuba' and 'Free Silver' emblazoned on its banner, and prevent the possibility of Populistic success in 1900."

On the other hand, the free-silverites see advantage for their cause in war. One of these men in the Senate is said to have served notice on the Administration men that any bond issue which may be authorized must call for payment in silver. This announcement is represented to have "somewhat staggered the Republican sound-money men," one of whom asked, "Do you mean to say that at this critical juncture you would force the President to either veto or to sign a measure that is absolutely against his every principle?" The reply, "delivered in the firmest manner," is reported to have been: "Yes, if any act is passed authorizing the issuance of bonds, it must provide for their payment in silver." Senator Teller of Colorado is quoted as saying that he does not think that the silverites would insist upon making bonds payable in silver, being content to have the word "coin" used, but that they will not consent to the issue of any bonds except in the last emergency. Before resorting to bonds, he would have the Government "coin the silver in the Treasury that secures the Treasury notes"—about $100,000,000 at its cost price—and inflate the currency by the "issue of Treasury certificates redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the Government, which would not draw interest, and the Government could float them just as easily as bonds, and get all the money it needs." Such is the inviting financial prospect in face of war that is held out before us by the element which controls the United States Senate.

Congressman Boutelle of Maine deserves the warmest commendation from all right-minded men for the fine display of good sense and courage which he made when the Cuban resolutions came before the House on Wednesday week. Mr. Boutelle regarded these resolutions as altogether too radical, and tried to get a vote on an amendment making them much milder, but was refused an opportunity, whereupon he voted against their adoption. The reasons for his course are well stated in a Washington dispatch to his newspaper, the Bangor *Whig and Courier*. Spain had conceded nearly every one of our demands, and seemed plainly disposed to full concessions in the near future. The radical Jingoes in the House and Senate had insisted on incorporating in the resolutions a demand for the entire overthrow of Spain's relations to Cuba, notwithstanding the risk that such a declaration would be regarded as a menace by all the great Powers having large colonial possessions, and might incline them to sympathy with Spain instead of with us as hitherto. "They also seem determined to render it impossible that peace and our demands shall be attained through the efforts now making by the other nations." It required a great deal of independence and courage for a Republican Congressman to take such a position, in which he was supported by only one member of his party, Representative Johnson of Indiana. But Mr. Boutelle has the honor of having been the one Representative in the House to stand out against the Jingo wave which swept over that body when President Cleveland sent in his Venezuelan message two years ago last winter.

The people who are gayly talking of war with Spain as an agreeable diversion for thirty days will do well to read the views of Gen. George W. Wingate, who has had experience in an official position in the National Guard of this State. The picture which he draws of the militia of the nation as a whole is not an attractive one, and the lack of proper equipment and discipline in the forces of many Western States accentuates the absurdity of the eagerness for war reported to prevail in that part of the country. As bearing on this same question, what Gen. Wingate says as to the feeling among the National Guard regarding an invasion of Cuba—taking it for granted that the President could constitutionally send militia out of the country—is very interesting. "It may be," he says, "that the National Guard of the South and West is anxious to constitute a part of such an invading force, but no such desire exists among the National Guard in this section. On the contrary, the feeling among them is pronounced that, while they are ready to instantly respond to a call for service any-

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where in the United States, without regard to the sacrifices which they will have to make in leaving their business and families, service as a part of such an invading army, and at this unhealthy season of the year, is one which should not be asked of them." By the way, does anybody happen to know people who are anxious to enlist as volunteers and invade Cuba at the opening of the wet season and the period for the yellow-fever epidemic?

The "rights of the militia" are engaging the attention of the War Department. It is conceded that the militia, whether organized or not, cannot be called out by the President for a war which does not come under the head of insurrection, invasion, or to enforce the laws of the United States. For the purposes of a war in Cuba only such members of the militia as should volunteer could be used. If in the course of a war in or about Cuba Spain should invade us, the President could lawfully call out the militia. It has been held by the courts also that the President may call out the militia if he sees preparations for invasion; but they can be used only to repel the invasion. On the false pretence that Mexico had invaded us in 1846, President Polk authorized Gen. Taylor to call for the services of two regiments of the militia of Louisiana, expressly to repel that invasion. It has been held by the courts, also, that in a case of doubt whether the country is in danger of invasion or not, the judgment of the President is decisive. As the power to decide must be lodged somewhere, and must be exercised in a summary manner, it must necessarily be in the President. It is not conceivable, however, that it should be exercised to call out the militia to invade a country separated from us by the ocean.

Don Francisco Silvela in the *Figaro* advances some views as to Spain's course which seem to have a certain weight. Señor Silvela, we may remark, is the present head of the Conservative party of Spain, likely to be the next Prime Minister, and is a man whose opinions as to "what Spain will do" are at least worthy of mention in the same breath with wisdom about Spain derived from the American inner consciousness. Well, Silvela declares in the first place, that all parties in Spain are absolutely united in defence of Spanish sovereignty over Cuba. The Conservatives place themselves absolutely at Sagasta's disposal. They accept his plan of autonomy for Cuba, and, if they should be called to power, would consider "all that has been granted to the Cubans as a part of the Conservative policy." At any rate, the Government is certain of the heartiest support of the Conservative party in this Cuban matter, whether the result be an honorable peace or a war forced upon Spain. And if it comes to war, says Señor Silvela, it is a great mistake to say that Spain will be prevented from fighting by financial weakness. Her resources are by no means exhausted. Many a long contest has Spain sustained in the past without money, and she will do it again if necessary. Finally, Silvela's account of the "dynastic" argument is somewhat different from the accepted American version. This may prove that it is necessarily wrong, but we can at least afford to listen, with a superior smile, to what Señor Silvela has to say. Asked if a serious disaster in war would not endanger the Spanish monarchy, he replied: "Not at all. The Queen Regent has the entire confidence of the Spanish nation. . . . Besides, everybody sees that the fall of the dynasty would be the most remediless of calamities. The army, you may take my word for it, will be immovable in its loyalty."

The notion that war will bring business prosperity has been chilled by reports coming in from all quarters of the cancellation of orders for goods and of the prospective closing of mills. The first blow falls upon the producers of textile goods, because people can wear their old clothes longer than they had intended to. Each man and woman begins to economize, and finds it easier to economize in clothing than in anything else that can be classed among the necessaries of life. It is most desirable that the public mind should be rid of the crude conception that bloodshed and the destruction of property are good for trade. It took its start here during the civil war. A few speculators, contractors, and gold gamblers got rich. They kept themselves in evidence by vulgar display. They filled the public eye and gave an impression that the country was getting rich also. Meanwhile, the laboring classes were either fighting at wages of thirteen dollars per month, payable in depreciated currency, or working for less money, reckoned at gold value, than they received before. They were helped by soup kitchens more or less, but their groans were drowned by the roar of battle. When a national fallacy like the one under consideration takes root, it can be dislodged only by experience such as we are beginning to have. The fair form of prosperity which was rising out of the clouds of the past five years is, we fear, again sinking beneath them.

It has been evident, since the beginning of the present "war scare," that the mainstay of the financial situation was this country's enormous credit fund on international account, piled up as a result of our unprecedentedly heavy export trade. So long as our money market continued easy, the foreign obligations on this account were met by borrowing on the American market. When, on the other hand, our markets grew uneasy, and banks felt the need of strengthening their cash reserves against a conceivable emergency, the settlement of these foreign dues was called for—resulting in the fifty to sixty million dollars of gold importations in the last eight weeks. Since the merchandise trade account has played so prominent a part in this extraordinary operation, the Government's report of our foreign trade for March, published on Thursday, is of peculiar interest. The statement is sufficiently interesting in itself. It shows another heavy increase in our exports and another heavy decrease in our imports; both changes being of such magnitude that the month's excess of merchandise exports over imports reaches $51,310,000, against an excess of only $10,930,000 in March of 1897, and of no more than $3,225,000 in 1892, after the heavy grain crop of the previous season. For the nine completed months of the fiscal year, the export excess reaches the remarkable sum of $470,961,000, exceeding by $147,548,000 the record for the same nine months last year, which was even then unparalleled in our history.

A telegram from Jamaica says that there has been an assembling of British war-ships at Jamaica with the purpose of enforcing the neutrality of that island in the event of war between the United States and Spain. The important statement is made also that coal will not be considered contraband of war, but will be sold to any purchaser, Spanish or American, and that when war-ships of opposing belligerents are in British ports they will not be allowed to depart within twenty-four hours of each other. These rules are to remain in force in Jamaica unless specific instructions to the contrary are received from the home Government. It is important to note that coal has never been made contraband of war, either by treaty or by the consensus of nations. The general law of contraband, as stated by Woolsey, is that "nothing can be justly regarded as contraband unless so regarded by the law of nations or by express convention between certain parties, and that the definition of contraband must be clear and positive." In other words, all articles not clearly and positively defined as contraband may be freely bought and sold. As coal is not one of these articles, the Spanish cruisers may obtain supplies from either British or French islands in the West Indies, and we may do the same, subject to such regulations as their respective Governments may prescribe. As both of those Powers are strong enough to enforce such regulations as they make, it may turn out, contrary to our expectations,

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that, in the event of war, Spain will have as convenient and abundant supplies of coal as ourselves.

Mr. Wayne McVeagh has raised his voice in denunciation of the corruption which rules in Pennsylvania, and in advocacy of a popular revolution against it. A reception was tendered the ex-Attorney-General by the Civil-Service-Reform Association of Philadelphia last week, and he made a speech in which he discussed the political conditions existing in the city and State, which "have reached a point where we ought all to agree, whether we support or oppose them, that they represent purely and simply in their last analysis government by bribery and corruption only." Discussing the question of a remedy, Mr. McVeagh expressed the opinion that "it is not to be found in furnishing additional evidence of the bribery and corruption admitted by everybody to exist, nor in pursuing the poorer victims of the degraded and sordid atmosphere with which we have surrounded them," and declared that "we ought not to blame them as much as ourselves," adding: "The receiver of stolen goods can hold up his head in his church, his club, his board of directors, his lawyer's office, or among his acquaintances, as the receiver of property or franchises or contracts stolen from the people by the bribery of their public servants." Summing up the whole matter, Mr. McVeagh reached "the homely conclusion that there is no remedy for wrong-doing but doing right, and the only hope of the purification of our public service in this city and State is in the growth of the public sentiment which will make it odious, uncomfortably odious, for anybody hereafter to be found in possession of property wrongfully taken from the people, or property indirectly taken by bribery and corruption."

In their deliverance on Thursday, the Pennsylvania Civil-Service-Reform Association pointed out that, while the President has done well in regard to the execution of the civil-service law, he has done ill in regard to such places as are not covered by that law. It refers to the open avowal of his intention to make appointments to Federal positions in the various States upon the recommendation of their Senators and Representatives, and traces the results of applying this principle to the heads of the Government offices in Philadelphia. "All of these have now been changed," it proceeds, "and it is perfectly fair to say that in not one instance has the old incumbent been dismissed or the new one appointed for the good of the service, or with the intention of filling the office with a more honest or more capable official than the man who was already there." Nor is this the worst that is to be said. The new postmaster is charged with "treating with little effect his obligations to the laws of his country, and trying, in defiance of those laws, to turn the office over which he presides into a machine for rewarding and punishing political friends and enemies"; and with having "practically nullified the order of President McKinley by reducing men against whom no charges had been made from high positions to lower ones, appointing to the vacant places, in some instances, men who are alleged to have been unfit for the positions." It appears that a full statement of these cases, with charges of other violations of official duty, has been made up by a committee of the National Civil Service Reform League, which came to Philadelphia in order to investigate the management of the post-office, and has been placed by that committee in the hands of the President. The Association say that "the grave crisis through which the country is now passing may well prevent Mr. McKinley from giving this matter immediate attention, but we hope that ultimately he will take such action as will at least prevent a repetition of similar malfeasance."

The voters of Pennsylvania are assured an opportunity to vote for a man worthy to be Governor of their State by the Rev. Dr. S. C. Swallow's acceptance of his nomination for Governor by "the Honest Government party." His letter reads like the message of an old Hebrew prophet. In a few sentences he draws a vivid picture of the despotism which has been established in Pennsylvania, and which has rendered the State "a very Gibraltar of corruption, compared with which the England of Charles the First was the embodiment of virtue." He declares that the only hope of the State is to end this corrupt despotism, and he accepts leadership in the contest against it as a religious duty. The single plank in his platform is "Honest Government," and his rallying cry is, "Thou shalt not steal." Dr. Swallow finds the necessity for his own candidacy in the assurance that no man will be nominated by the Republicans who is not acceptable to Quay, and no man by the Democrats who is not acceptable to a Democratic boss who is controlled by Quay, while he rightly dismisses Mr. Wanamaker as unacceptable to the friends of honest government, both because he has declared himself against independent candidacy, and because he has declared "his past endorsement, by an unscratched ballot, of the vilest boss methods his forceful language could describe."

It is very unfortunate that the first enrolment of voters under the new primary law should take place in the very crisis of the war excitement. The dates fixed for it are April 15 to April 30, inclusive. During that period any voter who was registered last year may have his name enrolled as a member of a party in his election district by signing and acknowledging before a notary public a declaration that his intention is to support generally the nominees of that party at the next election, and sending the declaration to the Bureau of Elections. His name will then be put on the lists of voters entitled to take part in the primary elections. Declaration blanks can be obtained at the five borough offices of the Bureau of Elections. We are informed that the Republican machine district leaders are sending out circulars asking for the declarations to be sent to them for filing, and we are asked to warn Republican voters against following this advice, the suspicion being that the machine leaders would fail, for reasons of their own, to file the declarations of anti-machine Republicans. There are certainly grounds for this suspicion. The conduct of these leaders in the past justifies the worst view that can be taken of the uses they might make of any power over the enrolment which shall be intrusted to them. The only safe method for Republican voters to follow is to send their declarations direct to the Bureau of Elections or to the Committee of Fifty-three.

With the increasing intensity of protectionism in France, the successive symptoms of the disease, with which we have been made painfully familiar in this country, are manifesting themselves. One of the latest of them is a sudden fury against professors of political economy. They teach free trade, the scoundrels, while the country is committed to the policy of protection. This is doubly intolerable in France, because the same state which votes protective duties, votes the salaries of the teachers who are saying that protective duties are folly. What a horrible inconsistency that is. Nay, what a public crime, cries the *Société des Agriculteurs de France*, and resolves that henceforth the public instruction in political economy shall be "in harmony with the legislation of the state." The French are famous for logic, and this is strictly logical, it must be confessed. Only it will have to be applied to many subjects besides political economy. The professors will have to read the latest election returns and resolves of Parliament before being able to decide if they are to teach that it was the Catholics or the Huguenots who were slaughtered on St. Bartholomew's Day, that alcohol is a stimulant or a narcotic, and that the earth goes round the sun or the sun round the earth. When universal suffrage and the legislation of the state get full control of the universities, we shall see some strange chairs of learning strangely filled.

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WAR OR PEACE.

The die seems now to have been cast. The issues of peace or war have been remitted to the President's hands. The only possible escape from some resort to force is apparently the surrender of Spain to the American demands. This, Congress, in its wisdom, has made as difficult for the Spaniards as possible. We cannot recall any case in history in which one civilized nation has addressed another in such language as the congressional resolution before hostilities have actually commenced. We cordially endorse the Philadelphia *Press's* judgment on them. It says:

> "But the Senate resolutions, even without the recognition of the insurgent Government, are untrue, illogical, inconsistent, self-contradictory, and self-stultifying. They will not bear intelligent analysis or examination."

To the President it now belongs to decide, as commander in chief of the army, when and where the war shall commence and in what manner and by what force it shall be carried on. He has been directed to get the Spaniards out of Cuba; but it is for him to decide when he shall resort to war, for this purpose, if at all. It will not be maintained, we trust, even by the Jingoes, that if the Spaniards offer to leave peaceably he is bound to attack them en route, although a good deal of the war talk would bear that interpretation. When the Spaniards discover that no prayers can pierce us, that we are determined to have a fight with them if we can, we cannot help believing that they will see that discretion is the better part of valor and find some way of escaping hostilities.

When the fighting begins, we must only hope that it will be short, sharp, and decisive. We are still of opinion that the dispute might have been ended —nay, may still be ended—without fighting at all. We could have tried the plan of autonomy which the Spaniards have offered to concede by perfectly peaceable means. The objection which has been made to this is, that the Spaniards cannot be trusted to keep their promises; that in four or five years they will withdraw what they concede, as they have often done before. The answer is that they have never before promised the withdrawal of their troops as part of the reform, and that they would find it impossible to go back to their old ways without soldiers. Moreover, it is, as we have often said, never too late to go to war. We could fight them just as well after they had broken their promises as now, if not better. What prevents our trying the autonomy plan is, in a very large degree, the desire of some of the Jingoes for a war, as one of them has said, "just or unjust, necessary or unnecessary, right or wrong." This is a painful confession for a civilized nation to make, but it must be made. It is an inevitable inference from the proceedings in Congress and the conduct of a portion of our press. It is the conclusion which the world at large now draws and which history will draw.

Spain is a third-rate and declining Power; we are one of the mightiest in the world. We shall never be able to "point with pride" to this war as we point to the Revolutionary war, or the war of the rebellion, or the war of 1812, when we engaged in contests which the world believed to be beyond our strength or resources. But the discredit of attacking a third-rate Power, be it small or great, will come nowhere near the discredit of our manner of getting ready for the contest. When one thinks of the blowing, the blatherskite, the mendacity of the most widely read portion of our press, of the steady fire of the lowest insults kept up against an adversary with whom we meant to engage in honorable, civilized warfare, by the Legislature of the nation, one involuntarily asks, Are there no gentlemen left in American public life?

We wish we could add that, now that we are approaching the stern arbitrament of war, we believe that lying will cease or diminish. But we can hold out no such prospect. War is preëminently a state of things in which all human vices flourish or are encouraged, especially the vice of mendacity. We must be prepared for its exhibition on a greater scale than ever before witnessed by mankind, incessant, monstrous, and perfectly shameless.

THE EDUCATION OF WAR.

The influence which is being exerted on Congressmen at this crisis by their constituents may be all summed up by saying that the poor and ignorant men, who are to be the greatest sufferers by it in the end, are in favor of war, while the well-to-do and intelligent, or, in other words, the employers of labor, the men who understand the conditions of business, write or telegraph in favor of peace. Side by side with this comes the news from the recruiting offices that the sound and able-bodied are not offering themselves for enlistment. Out of one hundred men who wished to join the army, in Philadelphia, only four could pass the surgeon. The contrast this presents with 1861, when the national heart was really stirred by the impending conflict, seems to indicate that the men who have value in the labor market do not want to go to Cuba to fight, and expect better times at home if other people can be got to go. They have swallowed the stories told by some of the newspapers of the business profits of war, and their delusion on this subject is made serious by the fact that they have votes. The more unscrupulous or more ignorant Jingo papers have assured them that the brief stimulus given to trade by the Government demand for the supplies necessary for hostilities, to be followed in killing people and destroying property, is good for the poor man.

This doctrine, which is a favorite one with all Jingoes, speculators, and contractors—in fact, the whole class which seeks sudden fortunes and hopes to "get out" before the crash comes—is of comparatively modern origin. Before the French Revolution, wars were undertaken for "honor," or the glory of the monarchy, or the extension of the national territory. The doctrine that war is profitable from a business point of view, is an idea which has come in with the growth of manufactures and the growing power of money. The state of feeling which leads to war, or the popular interest in some war-bringing question, generally precedes depression of trade and manufactures, throws many out of employment, and loads up factories with unsalable goods. That war will probably create a demand for these goods seems plain enough. The prospect of getting rid of them through a lively Government custom, or through the tremendous destruction which war always works, naturally fires the manufacturer's imagination, and through him fires the imagination of the workers, and they all become Jingoes together. No one looks forward to what will follow the close of the war. Every one wants something good now, and only the intelligent few foresee the pay-day. It is exactly the case of the spendthrift who borrows money on notes. He is so gratified by the possession of cash that he does not trouble himself about the way the notes will be met.

The war of the rebellion cost 700,000 lives and made a debt of $2,000,000,000. It was necessary, but it would be ludicrous to speak of it as a good business enterprise for the generation which fought it. We say nothing of its effect on morals and manners. But the debt it created, in spite of the hearty popular support, has not yet been paid off. The disorder in our currency which it created has not yet been rectified, after the lapse of thirty-five years, and has filled the land with crazy notions about the nature and use of money which are clouds on our business future. The value of the labor of the 700,000 men who died can hardly be estimated, nor can the amount of property destroyed, but both were enormous. The infusion into the mind of a growing democracy of the doctrine that there is money in war would be, if successful, the most awful calamity that could befall the modern world; and hanging would be too good for the editor or business man who preached it. We shall some day be 300,000,000 strong, and we shall then wield an enormous force, such as no existing nation will come anywhere near possessing, except possibly Russia. The indications are, too, that we shall be in possession of a large fleet

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and large army. Let us figure to ourselves the possibility of this force being at the disposal of a multitude easily excited by yellow journals, finding work slack, as it is apt to be when the number who want employment is great, and imbued with the idea that war would be pecuniarily profitable. We should have here a great nation turned buccaneer and using enormous armaments to fill its pockets.

It must not be forgotten that we are to-day making precedents and concocting doctrines for what is practically a new people. No one denies that the national character, partly as a result of the war and partly as a result of the influence of greatly increased facility in making money, has undergone serious modifications. The old expectation of peaceful development and the self-reliance which were the chief characteristics of American society before the war, have well-nigh disappeared. A large portion of the population is filled with a desire to employ force to gratify our own desires and ambitions, to become a great military and naval power, and to use this power to have our own way, in disregard of law and precedent. The cheap press preaches these things incessantly, and the cheap press now has an influence on the government of the nation which no one dreamed of fifty years ago. It therefore behooves every man who uses either voice or pen for purposes of persuasion, and has a conscience and loves his country, to take heed what economy or morality he recommends.

NATIONAL HYSTERIA.

The *St. James's Gazette*, a London journal that has shown unexpected friendliness to the United States during the Cuban imbroglio, says that we are now passing through a period of national hysteria. This is said apropos of the series of speeches and reports in Congress touching the disaster to the *Maine*. It has been forgotten, apparently, that our naval court of inquiry came to the conclusion that there was nothing to fix direct responsibility upon Spain or upon anybody for the loss of the ship. How much substantial evidence there is for the belief that the disaster was due to an outside explosion, we shall not now consider. If we assume that it was due to an outside explosion, it is quite as likely that it was done by Cuban insurgents in order to embroil us with Spain as that it was done by a Spaniard or Spaniards. That there are insurgents in Havana holding office under the Spanish Government, is proved by the fact that one of them stole the De Lome letter out of the Havana post-office. Moreover, it is a matter of record that the Spanish authorities did not want the *Maine* to come to Havana, but tried to keep her away. They would not have done so if they had desired to blow her up. It is evidently the opinion of Consul-General Lee that the ship was not blown up by a mine planted in the harbor beforehand. A ship moored to a buoy by a chain, in a harbor under tidal influence, swings around. It does not stay in one place. It would have been impossible for anybody on shore at nine o'clock at night to fix her position so as to determine the time for firing the mine, if there had been a mine there. The theory of an outside explosion, therefore, rests upon the hypothesis that some person or persons towed the mine or torpedo down to the ship with a small boat, exploded it, and got away unobserved. This is the view which Consul-General Lee seems to favor. This might as easily have been done by the man who stole the De Lome letter as by anybody else.

The American people are not unreasonable or cruel or cowardly, yet all of these qualities are united in the cry, "Remember the *Maine!*" It is unreasonable to assume that Spain is responsible for the disaster when our own court of inquiry says that it was not able to fix the responsibility. It is cruel to make war in order to gain what may be reached more surely and satisfactorily by peaceable means. It is cowardly, under such circumstances, to attack a weaker nation than ourselves. The attack of hysteria that swept over the Senate last week, and over a large portion of the country, is another instance of the well-known social phenomenon that a crowd will often do things which every member of the crowd would scorn to do as an individual, and that all would despise themselves for doing after a little time for reflection.

Among the manifestations of the prevailing craze is the oft-repeated statement that if the *Maine* had been a British ship, Havana would have been laid in ashes within twenty-four hours. This extravagant conceit was put forth by a yellow journalist a day or two after the disaster. It had not the slightest foundation. It was a mere random guess of a newspaper reporter, and was monstrously false, assuming that Great Britain would have bombarded a quarter of a million innocent men, women, and children without any evidence that either they or their rulers had done any wrong. Yet this wild conception has gained lodgment in the minds of an immense number of people, and it forms in their minds a justification for any cruelty they may be inclined to commit. Probably they would be reluctant to follow the example of Mr. Gladstone in the Transvaal war, when Great Britain turned back and sacrificed her prestige in order to avoid sheer blood-guiltiness.

Even our sedate contemporary, the *Financial Chronicle*, has tasted the insane root that takes the reason prisoner. Although it leans to the opinion that there was no submarine mine in the case, yet it holds that the Spanish Government has been remiss in the matter of expressions of regret. "The astounding shortsightedness of the Spanish authorities," it says, "may best be judged by supposing that the explosion of the *Maine* had been followed by formal and personal expressions of regret and sympathy from all public officers at Havana and Madrid; that the Spanish Government had instantly volunteered to send before our court of inquiry the harbor master of Havana and the pilot who brought the vessel to its moorings." A person reading this, and having no other information, would assume that Spain had given no expression of regret, and that the people of Havana had not turned out *en masse*, with every expression of sympathy, to the funeral of the dead sailors. The truth is, that the most ample expressions of regret were given by Spain and her officers at the time of the occurrence, and were repeated only one week ago by her Minister in Washington, who noted the fact that the previous expressions of the same feeling had been overlooked by the American people, saying:

> "Public opinion in this country appears to ignore the fact that the loss of the *Maine* was immediately followed by official and reiterated expressions of sympathy from her Majesty the Queen, from her Government, from her Chargé d'Affaires in Washington, and from the authorities in Havana, all of which tended to affirm the horror which this disaster has caused to arise in Spanish hearts, as also the sympathy felt for the United States Government and navy and the American people."

It appears that our esteemed contemporary has ignored this second expression as well as the first.

THE MORALS OF MUNICIPAL CORRUPTION.

Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, makes in the *Journal of Ethics* an important contribution to our knowledge of the sources of municipal corruption. Living for eight years in a Chicago ward where one of the most corrupt politicians of the city had his stronghold, and brought into daily contact, through her charitable and reformatory work, with the classes of the population that gave the local boss his invariable triumph at the polls, Miss Addams has observed him and them with the eye of an alert woman, and has written a most instructive paper on what may be called the natural history of municipal corruption.

Her quiet study of the actual facts, and that patiently from the inside, is the needed corrective to much hasty theorizing. There is, as we all know, a sort of apocalyptic theory of rotten politics in our cities. They are Satan's seat. Their vice, their coarseness, their indifference to political purity, their hasty return to the mire after one experience of what it is to be washed—all this is but the inherent vileness of mankind, displayed on a large scale as the opportunity for displaying it is large. Un-

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til the devil is chained or the world burned up, there will be no such thing as effective municipal reform. But what Miss Addams has shown, in opposition to this millenarian school, is that the bad political conditions which we all so much deplore in our cities are intimately connected with rudimentary notions of morals; that it is not pure love of evil which makes the majority of voters in a ward steadily support a proved corruptionist, but the same instinctive and undeveloped code of morality which they follow in all their life.

In fact, as Miss Addams demonstrates, the desire of the Italian and Polish and Hungarian voters in an American city to be represented by "a good man" is not a whit less strenuous than that of the best native stock. Only their idea of the good man is somewhat different. He must be good according to their highest standards of goodness. He must be a man kind to the poor—not only in a general way, but with particular and unfailing attention to their every want and misfortune. Their joys he must brighten and their sorrows he must alleviate. In emergency, in catastrophe, in misunderstandings with employers and with the law, he must be their strong tower of help. Let him in all these things fill up their ideal of the "good man," and he has their votes at his absolute disposal.

How the corrupt Alderman of the Nineteenth Ward in Chicago built up his power on the primitive virtues of his constituents—not their vices—is shown in most enlightening detail by Miss Addams. He paid the rent of poor families in a pinch and threatened with eviction. He went bail for their sons when arrested. He buried their dead, having a standing account at the undertaker's, sometimes amounting to a thousand or two a year. The funeral of his humblest constituent was provided by this big-hearted friend with its requisite "flower-piece" and its string of carriages. The chances that the money to pay for it all was stolen, will not be too narrowly discussed by the people who ride to and from the graves of their dead at his expense. At weddings and christenings a present from the Alderman was never wanting. Six tons of turkeys and four or more tons of ducks and geese were handed out last Christmas by the Alderman in person or by deputy, each fowl accompanied by hearty greetings and good wishes. Still more of an earthly providence does the Alderman appear in his capacity of securing work for his supporters. In the Nineteenth Ward it was the Alderman's proud boast that he had 2,600 people on the pay-roll of the city or of corporations operating public franchises. Here was one-third of the vote of the entire ward inalienably his to begin with.

Now, considering the moral ideas of the people who vote such a man into office, it cannot be said that they are making a deliberate choice of bad rulers. They are simply supporting the best man they know—the type of big-hearted friendliness. If any qualms ever seize them respecting the source of the money he spends so lavishly for their benefit, they have a ready and all-sufficient explanation, "Oh, he gets it from the rich." It is a sort of Robin Hood affair: the poor man and the priest are not robbed, only the fat and greasy citizen, who has plenty more; so it does not matter. This is undeveloped morality, to be sure, but it is precisely on the undeveloped morality of municipal voters that corruption flourishes. Theirs is largely the crime of ignorance, while the inexcusable criminals are the rich men and corporations who furnish the corruptionist the money with which he makes himself impregnable among his simple-minded constituents. Miss Addams sees clearly this ultimate fountain and source of our municipal corruption. How an effort to redeem the Nineteenth Ward came to grief she relates as follows:

"During a campaign a year and a half ago, when a reform league put up a candidate against our corrupt Alderman, and when Hull House worked hard to rally the moral sentiment of the ward in favor of the new man, we encountered another and unexpected difficulty. Finding that it was hard to secure enough local speakers of the moral tone which we desired, we imported orators from other parts of the town, from the 'better element,' so to speak. Suddenly we heard it rumored on all sides that, while the money and speakers for the reform candidate were coming from the swells, the money which was backing our corrupt Alderman also came from a swell source; it was rumored that the president of a street-car combination, for whom he performed constant offices in the City Council, was ready to back him to the extent of $50,000; that he, too, was a good man, and sat in high places; that he had recently given a large sum of money to an educational institution, and was therefore as philanthrophic, not to say good and upright, as any man in town; that our Alderman had the sanction of the highest authorities, and that the lecturers who were talking against corruption and the selling and buying of franchises, were only the cranks, and not the solid business men who had developed and built up Chicago."

To this *impasse* every trail leads. If we want to identify the men who make our municipal politics a hissing, we must not look for them in the tenements and the slums. The voters there resident live up, in general, to their highest conception of morality and civic duty. No, we must go to the clubs and the churches and the avenues where are to be found the men of eminent respectability who, for the sake of making millions illegally, pay out their tens of thousands to the spoiler.

THE ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, March 24, 1898.

The election which has just been held for new members of Parliament is remarkable in many respects. For the first time since the first election there were no party cries, no party platforms, and no special party excitement. In many districts there was much acrimony between candidates which in a few cases led to bloodshed, but these dissensions arose mainly from personal rivalry, and not from any excess of party spirit. Beyond the fact that the Constitution of Japan prescribes an election within a certain period after the dissolution of Parliament, and requires the sanction of Parliament for the enactment of certain measures, it is difficult to see why the late election took place.

No doubt there are reasons why this state of things should exist. The new Cabinet, since coming into power, has had no time to make either friends or enemies. It is a strong cabinet in some respects, and contains some new men who are anxious to show their calibre. They know that they are on trial in a rather critical period, and they are exerting every effort to make themselves useful in their respective departments. While the Cabinet is devoid of popularity, it has so far not marred its activity by any blunder. The parties, therefore, even of the so-called Opposition have been without a handle of attack. Besides, the Cabinet definitely declared before the election that it would make no party affiliations. In former elections the Government has been known to give its utmost assistance to the party or parties that promised support in passing certain measures. But the present Ito Cabinet refused to do more than to stand impartially between conflicting partisans, and determined that it would merely enforce the laws against election disorders. This programme, it is only fair to say, the Government strictly adhered to. So far there has been no charge from any party or coterie that the Government showed favor to one candidate at the expense of another. This attitude of indifference, while it insured a fair election, undoubtedly deprived the campaign of some picturesque characteristics.

But, more than all this, the old war cries directed against the *Satcho* have lost much vitality for the moment through the fault of the parties themselves. All the groups—the Liberals, the Progressives, and National Unionists—have at one time or another united with the Government in power on terms far short of those demanded in their political manifestoes. The result is, that the old fight between the Government and Parliament cannot be easily renewed. There must at least be a pretence to consistency and sincerity in party warfare; otherwise the public is bound to lose its interest in a political contest. When, a year ago, it was seen that the Progressive party, the last to hold out against the Government, yielded to the blandishments of the Cabinet, there was no party left to defend the old principles and measures. The recent "campaign" is the first that has shown the consequences of this abandonment of old watchwords and party cries. It is clear that the voters have for the time lost the interest which they formerly had in electoral contests.

Nevertheless, the election was not conducted by the candidates without a certain general object in view. In political warfare, distinctions may often be made without a difference, and in the present election we may note certain points as to which the various parties and groups were divided. As soon as the returns came in, the newspapers separated the successful candidates into two classes—those who were likely to support, and those who were likely to oppose, the Government. The chief parties for the Government are supposed to be the Liberals and National Unionists, the former an ally

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of Marquis Ito in his previous administration. The most powerful of the opposition parties are the Progressives, who, with their leader, Count Okuma, abandoned the Matsukata Cabinet a few weeks before it fell. This separation of the two parties into two classes gives us a clue to what is the probable issue of the election. The various organizations without a watchword or principle worthy of the name can still maintain a relation of hostility towards or alliance with the Government. Their attitude will be determined entirely by the circumstances of the case. This is the secret of the efforts made in the election, especially by the Progressives. This party was aware that if it could succeed in securing a sufficient number of candidates, it could force the Government to make terms with it. For this reason it was willing to be considered an anti-Government party, though at the proper moment, under favorable conditions, it would perhaps throw in its lot with the Government. Even Count Okuma takes this view of the situation. It is known that in January, when the present Cabinet was forming, Count Okuma was solicited to enter it. He offered no objection to a union with Marquis Ito and other chiefs of the new Cabinet who had been his opponents, but stipulated certain conditions, chief of which was that his party should be liberally recognized in the official administration. The conditions were so onerous that they had to be rejected.

The returns of the election are a surprise in many ways. What calls for special notice is the heavy slaughter at the polls of some of the most experienced party men. Out of 299 members who sat in the old House, only 89 were reëlected. The greatest change took place in the Liberal ranks, in which only 26 of the old members were returned and 75 new members. The figures for the Progressives are 42 old and 62 new. The general dissatisfaction with the conduct of many of the old members in the last Parliament, especially in abandoning their party organization for the sake of official rewards, accounts to some extent for this overthrow. There can be no doubt that many candidates in this way lost influence with the voters. The general feebleness of party organization furnishes another practical explanation. In some districts there were two or even more candidates, nominally belonging to the same party, contending for a seat, and in these cases the rivalry was often quite as great as between the candidates of different parties.

Precisely what vote the Government can count upon during the next session is still a matter of uncertainty. It may be assumed that the Liberals and National Unionists will join their forces in support of the Government; but as members belonging to these two parties do not command a majority in the Lower House, the Government will need reinforcements. On the side of the Government may be reckoned 101 Liberals and 25 National Unionists, and probably the 9 votes of the Business Men's party, making a total of 135. On the other side, the Progressives control 104 votes of their own party and 22 votes of loosely affiliated parties, making a total of 126 for the possible opposition. The balance may lie in the hands of the Independents, and the Government, it is said, will secure them. If not, it will have to make concessions to the Progressives, who, as the cleverest political managers in Japan, will strain every nerve to strengthen their own ranks. Of all the parties the Progressives have lost least by the election. Their prestige, though not what it once was, is not seriously damaged, and it would require but a little more popularity for them to secure a working majority. The general feeling among the voters, now as ever, is unquestionably with the party that stands strongest for party cabinets.

The next session of Parliament is bound to be an important one, and the pressure of various measures which the Government will lay before the Lower House may help it in securing the requisite majority. The position of Japan *vis à vis* the European Powers who now threaten China is awakening the gravest anxiety, both within and without Government circles. The expansion of the army and navy calls for heavy outlays and new taxes, some of which will have to be considered in the next session. The money market in Japan is in a precarious condition. In every department of business there is a cry for more capital. It is practically impossible for the Government to float any new issues of bonds within the country at reasonable rates of interest, as the market seems to be gleaned bare of surplus funds. To foreign loans at the present moment the Government has a natural aversion, though eventually it may have recourse to them. The indemnity is not yet exhausted, but, with heavy payments for war-ships now building abroad, the net proceeds left for home purposes are by no means extraordinary. The very gravity of these issues may serve to stifle party warfare and give to the Government, which lacks the elements of strong popular support, a working majority, or even a strong backing. Whatever the faults of political parties in Japan, they cannot be charged with sacrificing their country's interest to party or personal considerations.

G. D.

THE DEPUTY KEEPER OF THE RECORDS.

LONDON, March, 1898.

Hard by the Courts of Justice, and close to Lincoln's Inn, Gray's Inn, and the Temple, in a neighborhood where lawyers most do congregate, the Public Record Office rears its beautiful structure. It stands upon land of the Rolls Estate, property belonging to the Crown. Going from Charing Cross along the Strand, after passing the Griffin which now marks the site where Temple Bar stood not so very long ago, you turn by your left into Chancery Lane, on the right-hand side of which you will, after walking about two hundred yards, find an entrance to the Record Office. This approach is one of very recent date. The other route—and formerly the only one—is by Fetter Lane, on the City side.

The building, which forms a record repository for the United Kingdom, is a modern one. The construction of the main pile was commenced only in 1851. Parliament voted a quarter of a million pounds sterling for the work. Extensions are even now going on, which are estimated to cost over fifty thousand pounds more. These will include a museum, into which the old Rolls Chapel is being converted, wherein will be set out for the inspection of sightseers various unique historical documents that are preserved in the great treasure-house of materials for the history of the British Empire and for the colonial period of the United States. But few American visitors to London seem to be aware that, even now, there is a room in the newly built annex in which are displayed for public view documents not duplicated elsewhere. Here are the two parts of Domesday Book. Here is the Pope's bull creating King Henry VIII. Defender of the Faith, and here the Treaty of the Cloth of Gold. The statutes of the Poor Knights of Windsor and the statutes of the Order of St. Michael of France are both on view. Tallies used in the Exchequer, both ancient and modern, and the famous golden seals may also be seen. Specimens of illumination and autographs of famous persons alike are open to inspection. It is not, however, as a museum, but as a mine of history that this great national institution must be regarded. The nature of the documents and their priceless value are well described by Mr. Scargill-Bird, an assistant keeper of the records, in his most useful 'Guide to the Principal Classes of Documents Preserved in the Public Record Office.' As an example of the vast bulk of the material, Mr. Scargill-Bird instances the Close Rolls of the Court of Chancery. These comprise considerably over 10,000 rolls. The Coram Rege and De Banco Rolls are also numbered by the thousands. They are frequently of huge size, a single roll of the Tudor and Stuart periods containing from 500 to 1,000 skins of parchment. The custody of these masses of records, and the direction of the department of state which is charged with preserving them and making them available for the use of the public, are, by law, vested in the Master of the Rolls, the judge who, in England, ranks after the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Chief Justice alone. The working head of the department, "the chief record keeper," is, however, the Deputy Keeper of the Records, whose apointment is vested in the Master of the Rolls, subject to the formal approval of the sovereign. The functions of both officials, in relation to the records, are defined by the public-record act (1 and 2 Vict., cap. 94).

It was in 1854 that the old State Paper Office was amalgamated with the Public Record Office, when the documents that had for centuries been accumulating were brought together at the Record repository, from the Courts of Chancery, Exchequer, Admiralty, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Marshalsea. At the same time were removed thither the records theretofore deposited in the Tower of London, the Chapter House at Westminster, the Rolls Chapel, Petty Bag Office, the Queen's Remembrancer, and other Exchequer offices, the First Fruits and Tenths Office, the Office of Land Revenue Records and Enrolments, the office of the late Auditor of the Land Revenues of England and Wales, and the Records of the Pells Office of the Exchequer. To these must be added the books, papers, and documents of the several departments of state and of other offices of government. A mere outsider may well feel appalled when Mr. Scargill-Bird, a specialist in such matters, admits that it took him ten years to compile his admirable 'Guide' to the Records. Yet, enormous as are the accumulations at the Record Office, there are multitudes of state papers in existence in other places. Among these are the mansions of the noblemen and gentlemen of England, the Lambeth Library, the British Museum, and the University and college libraries of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin. In olden times, the high officers of state

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regarded such documents as being their private property. They accordingly took them away to their homes, where many are still preserved. It was not until 1578 that the old State Paper Office was established by Queen Elizabeth, to prevent the "embezzlement" of the papers, on the frequent changes of secretaries of state, and "that a certain place should be appointed for them and a fit man chosen for registering and keeping them in order, who should be tied by oath for the secrecy and safe-keeping thereof." Even after the establishment of the State Paper Office, numbers of official records were "carried off." Hence it happens that, from time to time, the British Museum acquires, by purchase, all sorts of state papers, even including records of the Privy Council. The manuscripts known as Egerton, 2395, are a notable instance of this kind of acquisition, and include most valuable papers relating to the American and West Indian colonies in the seventeenth century, which were in the keeping of Thomas Povey, Secretary to the committee for plantations. On the other hand, the "good Earl" of Shaftesbury, in 1871, presented to the Public Record Office his family manuscripts; and the grandfather of the present Duke of Manchester "deposited" a number of his family papers at the same place. Both these interesting collections of the Ashley-Cooper and Montagu families are accessible to literary workers.

The mere preservation of these masses of records would be of but little avail to historical students and others. It is indispensable that the documents should be sorted out, arranged, listed, indexed, and calendared, and that they should be forthcoming on demand, when required by the numerous classes of inquirers who resort to the Record Office. This is the business of the Deputy Keeper of the Records. Under his direction work a staff of skilled officers, consisting of a secretary to the department, six Assistant Keepers of Records, and twenty clerks, and a number of attendants, some of whom have by long service acquired such an intimate knowledge of the details of the classification of the records as to render them most helpful to workers. The Parliamentary vote for the salaries and wages of the officers and servants of the department amounts annually to about £19,000. For the due application of this sum the Deputy Keeper is "Accounting Officer" under the rules of the Imperial Treasury. In like manner is he held responsible for the amounts expended on account of "Calendars and Historical Documents" and on account of the Historical Manuscripts Commission.

Those who have for the last quarter of a century been resorting to the Record Office justly hold in veneration the honored name of Sir Thomas Hardy, a former Deputy Keeper, who did much, under the ægis of Lord Romilly, the then Master of the Rolls, to make the treasures of the Record Office accessible to the public. Sir Thomas Hardy was succeeded by his brother, Sir William, who, in turn, was followed in 1886 by the present Deputy Keeper, Sir Henry Churchill Maxwell Lyte. It is no derogation of his predecessors to say that, under its present chief, a steady advance has been made in bringing the collections of the Record Office within easier reach of the public. On that gentleman's appointment, "the work of reducing the Records to a systematic arrangement was," says Mr. Scargill-Bird, "begun in earnest." Mr. Scargill-Bird himself supervised the work, which lasted for two years. In the result the officials were, for the first time, in a position to state definitely whether any record or records of a particular date and class did or did not exist. Moreover, huge masses of so-called Miscellanea have been examined, and found to contain a great number of documents belonging to already existing classes, and are being incorporated with these. A series of "Lists and Indexes," of and to these documents, has been begun. "Inventories" of several of the more important classes have been published. Then the system of "Calendars of State Papers" has not only been continued with those series already in progress, but has been extended. A new series has been undertaken of the Patent Rolls and Close Rolls, beginning with those of Edward I. The twelve volumes of these calendars already published form a valuable contribution to the history of England during the Middle Ages. The various series of calendars issued by the Record Office are simply invaluable to the historical student. The volumes give the pith of the contents of the records dealt with. Of departmental papers alone, about one hundred calendars are already in the hands of the public. These consist mainly of the Domestic, Foreign, and Colonial series. The last-mentioned series has a special interest for Americans, as it gives the pith of the contents of documents relating to the early years of the English colonies in America and the West Indies. The papers for this series have been arranged down to the year 1688. The calendars as yet published do not, however, include colonial papers of later date than 1680. They embrace (besides the documents at the Record Office) papers in the India Office and the British Museum. No student of the early history of the United States can be properly equipped for his work without having these calendars within his reach. No historical collection relating to American history can pretend to completeness without the volumes treating of America and the West Indies. These calendars are published by the British Government, not for gain, but as a contribution towards historical knowledge. Such of them as are not yet out of print may be had for about twenty-five dollars the lot. The following is a list of those already published:

Vol. i.—America and West Indies, 1574-1660.
Vol. ii.—East Indies, China, and Japan, 1513-1616. (Out of print.)
Vol. iii.—East Indies, China, and Japan. 1617-1621. (Out of print.)
Vol. iv.—East Indies, China, and Japan. 1622-1624.
Vol. v.—America and West Indies, 1661-1668.
Vol. vi.—East Indies, 1625-1629.
Vol. vii.—America and West Indies, 1669-1674.
Vol. viii.—East Indies and Persia, 1630-1634.
Vol. ix.—America and West Indies, 1675-1676, and Addenda, 1574-1674.
Vol. x.—America and West Indies, 1677-1680.

The bulk of these calendars was prepared by the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury, who for over fifty years was a member of the Record Office staff. To his collaboration many an American student, from the late George Bancroft downwards, has been indebted. Most of the American Ministers to the Court of St. James's at one time or another sought his assistance. He liked to speak of the impression made upon him by these diplomatists from the New World. Buchanan's manner quite charmed him. Mr. Sainsbury had some most interesting recollections of search-work in connection with his own service and that of searchers from the New World. On one occasion a lawyer came to him on behalf of a wealthy American who was anxious to establish his pedigree. There was a tradition in the family that an ancestor had gone to New York from Barbados in the seventeenth century. Proof was needed. Mr. Sainsbury referred to the Board of Trade papers of that period, and there found the name of the ancestor in question, in a list of passengers sailing from Barbados to New York. "That information," said the lawyer to Mr. Sainsbury, "is worth a thousand pounds!" He did not, however, act up to his generous impulse, as Mr. Sainsbury, with a merry laugh, assured an inquirer. A competent successor, as editor of the Colonial series of Calendars, has been found in the Hon. John Fortescue, a Devonshire man, whose interest in the history of the extension of the British Empire is hereditary. The historical labors of Mr. Fortescue are not confined to the preparation of these valuable calendars. He has made various interesting contributions to the literature of the day upon military expeditions and other matters.

Besides the calendars dealing with departmental papers, the Record Office has prepared and published hundreds of volumes that tell of the contents of documents preserved in the Record Office itself and among the archives of foreign countries. The latter include calendars of state papers preserved at Simancas and other depositories in Spain, and of state papers and manuscripts at Venice. Of the care with which these publications are edited, it is only necessary to say that the names of the editors include G. A. Bergenroth, Pascual de Gayángos, Martin Hume, and Rawdon Brown. Other calendars of British records include acts of the Privy Council of England, Treasury papers, state papers relating to Ireland, state papers relating to Scotland, and others that are very helpful in the several branches of historical research. Besides assisting students by making known the nature of documents, at home and abroad, that throw light upon the history of the United Kingdom, the authorities of the Record Office have gone afield, and caused to be printed or reprinted and edited the old Chronicles and the Memorials which are the sources of the early history. American students who may be concerned to learn the nature of the various publications emanating from the Record Office can obtain, gratis, a catalogue of them from the Queen's printers, Messrs. Eyre & Spottiswoode, East Harding Street, Fleet Street, London, E. C.

The same liberal spirit shown in the publication of the calendars and other pointers to the contents of the national records, extends to the admission of workers to the Record Office itself and to the examination of documents. The documents belonging to the great departments of state are merely "deposited" at the Record Office. They are treated as if they were still in the Government offices to which they respectively belong. The heads of those departments fix the limits within which their records may be inspected by inquirers. The Deputy Keeper merely gives effect to the general and special permissions accorded by the

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departmental chiefs. At the present time the following are the dates after which such documents cannot be consulted by the public without special permission from the departments concerned:

Treasury	December 31, 1759
Foreign Office (with some exceptions),	December 31, 1802
Colonial Office (with some exceptions),	December 31, 1802
Home Office	December 31, 1772
Admiralty	December 31, 1799
Admiralty, Logs	1840
Admiralty, Muster Books	1860
Board of Trade	January 29, 1820
Audit Office	1821
War Office	June 19, 1837

To obtain permission to search after-date papers, the student must address himself, in writing, to an Under Secretary of State, giving precise information as to the particular papers he wishes to have access to, and the nature of the use he proposes to make of the contents of the documents. Such permission is given only after strict inquiry. The present Deputy Keeper has here, again, conferred a boon upon students by getting the periods of search materially extended. Take, for instance, the limit for the Records of the Colonial Office, now brought down to 1802. Only a few years ago, such documents could not be searched when of later date than 1760, excepting by special permission from the Colonial Office. Under the same progressive administration of the Record Office, the hours of work have been extended by half an hour daily, which means an additional week in each year gained by searchers.

There are three separate search-rooms for the use of the public. These are: the literary search-room, the legal search-room, and the Government search-room. In the literary search-room, which is that most frequented, every kind of record, excepting the after-date state-papers above mentioned, is open to inspection, without restriction or payment. The daily average attendance here cannot be less than twenty-five. Not seldom there is hardly room enough for those having business there. From October to April may be regarded as the busiest time. It is said that the applications for documents in this room number considerably over 30,000 a year. The use of ink is strictly forbidden, and students must manage as best they can with pencils. In the legal search-room, records are open to the public without restriction, for researches made solely for historical or literary purposes. Where documents are consulted for matters of a business nature, fees must be paid by stamps. The Government search-room is mainly reserved for those who have special permission to search after-date papers. In this room may, at times, be seen such famous historians as Dr. Rawson Gardiner and Dr. Stubbs, the Bishop of Oxford. Here also are at work Dr. Theal, on behalf of the Government of the Cape of Good Hope; Mr. Bonwick, on behalf of the Government of New South Wales; and Major Smyth, on behalf of the Government of Canada—all with their staffs of copyists, engaged in the transcription of documents relating to the early history of their respective colonies, that will hereafter be placed among the archives at Capetown, at Sydney, and at Ottawa. Does the grandeur of the Great Republic disdain to profit by the example of these colonial governments?

Each of the search-rooms has an experienced officer as its superintendent. These gentlemen are most helpful to students, and their services have from time to time been acknowledged by the leading writers of the day. The superintendents have their own special work, such as the compiling of calendars, in hand; but, interrupt them as you will, they are ever courteous and obliging. The Superintendents at the present time are: Mr. G. H. Overend, in the Legal Room; Mr. Edward Salisbury, in the Literary Room; and Mr. Hubert Hall, in the Government Room.

There is practically no restriction upon admission to the Record Office for genuine workers; unless it be the requirement that persons shall not appear there in "unseemly dress." The rules governing the use of the institution are short and plain. The hours of admission are from 10 A. M. to 4:30 P. M. on every working-day throughout the year, excepting on Saturday, when the hours are from 10 A. M. to 2 P. M. On coming into the entrance-hall of the building, the student must forthwith write his name and full address in the attendance book kept there. He must also give up to the hall porter any umbrella, stick, or bag, brought by him. He will then proceed to the room where his researches are to be carried on. Arrived there, he takes a seat, and, by placing his overcoat upon it, or setting down his note-book or his hat upon the table in front of the seat, the place will be regarded as his for the remainder of the day. If the student knows the particular document or class of documents for which he is in quest, he at once fills up a form, with the necessary particulars, and within a reasonable time an attendant will bring the manuscripts required. If the student be in doubt, he can often get all the help he needs from one of the attendants, without troubling the Superintendent. Silence is, as far as practicable, required in the search-room. Exclusion or rejection from the search-rooms is almost unheard of, but rule 21 provides for it.

Besides his own proper duties in connection with the administration of the Record Office, the Deputy Keeper is charged with an honorary duty which closely concerns the cause of historical research. He is responsible for the general superintendence of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. In this he is assisted by the Secretary to the Record Office, who is also secretary to the commission. The chairman of this most useful commission is the Master of the Rolls for the time being. When Lord Esher lately retired from that high office, a fresh commission was issued. This comprises the following persons: Sir Nathaniel Lindley, Master of the Rolls; the Marquesses of Salisbury, Lothian, and Ripon; the Earls of Crawford and Rosebery; the Viscount Esher and Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice; Dr. Stubbs, the learned Bishop of Oxford; Lords Acton and Carlingford; Sir Edward Fry and Sir H. C. Maxwell Lyte; and those front-rank historians, Mr. Lecky and Mr. Rawson Gardiner. The commission is appointed to ascertain what unpublished manuscripts are extant in the collections of private persons, corporations, and institutions, which are calculated to throw light upon subjects connected with the civil, ecclesiastical, literary, or scientific history of the country; the main object being the discovery of unknown historical and literary materials. To give effect to their commission, application is made, from time to time, to the nobles and gentlemen of England, for permission to examine their muniment-rooms; assurance being given that nothing relating to title-deeds shall be divulged, and that papers of a private character shall not be examined. The Commissioners' appeals have met with a most generous response, and their published reports are invaluable for historical purposes. Some of the examinations are made by inspectors, appointed by the Deputy Keeper, at the houses where documents are preserved. In practice, it has been found more satisfactory, with the consent of the owner, to remove the papers to the Record Office itself, for examination there. Some of the collections preserved in the stately homes of England are very extensive. Already have seven volumes been issued by the commission upon those at Hatfield, Lord Salisbury's historical home; and yet the work seems only to be begun. The historical materials which have been brought to light since the commission's first report, in 1870, are simply priceless. Many of the appendices to those reports contain interesting information relating to the colonial period of American history. The papers of Lords Townshend and Dartmouth simply abound with materials for that history.

During the twelve years that he has filled the office of Deputy Keeper of the Records, Sir Maxwell Lyte has not only vigorously administered the department, and rendered its precious stores of documents more available to the public, but he has also exercised his best influence for the enlargement of the Record Office buildings. When the contemplated extensions have been carried out, and the old buildings yet remaining have been moved away, the beautiful architecture of the Record Office will then be properly appreciated. It was Lord Esher who, when Master of the Rolls, selected Sir Maxwell for the office of Deputy Keeper. At the time, the appointment caused bewilderment to the older members of the Department, for the new chief was not a member of the staff, although he had done a good deal of work as an inspector of private muniments for the Historical Manuscripts Commission. He was, on the other hand, an Eton boy and an Oxford man, who had written histories of those two seats of learning. Then, the rule for the compulsory retirement of officials at sixty-five years of age had not yet been enforced, and there were some elderly gentlemen on the staff who no doubt felt that they had been "passed over." The new Deputy Keeper had no intention of being a mere figure-head, while the elderly gentlemen, on their part, regarded supervision as interference. In one case, a mild suggestion from the chief brought upon him the crushing denunciation, "Mr. Lyte, I was on the staff of the Record Office before you were born!" This statement was quite true, and even now the Deputy Keeper has hardly attained his fiftieth year. But the old order has given place to the new, and the Deputy Keeper, the Secretary, and the whole staff work together in general accord for the good of the public. The high traditions of the department are maintained, and the dignity of the Record Office has been enlarged under its present head. Americans on their travels in Europe will see, in the English cemetery at Nice, the grave of the Rev. H. F. Lyte, the author of "Abide with Me" and of other beautiful hymns. It is a grandson of his who now so ably fills the office of Deputy Keeper of the Records. N. D. D.

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Correspondence.

A LITERARY PARALLEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is remarkable what a similarity there is between Paul Leicester Ford's novel, 'The Story of an Untold Love,' and M. Edmond Rostand's play, "Cyrano de Bergerac," which has set all France in a furor. M. Coquelin crowds the Porte-Saint-Martin nightly with it; Sir Henry Irving is to bring it out in London, Richard Mansfield in New York. M. Jules Lemaître declares it "le plus grand succès que j'ai vu"; and M. Émile Faguet, "le plus beau poème dramatique qui ait paru depuis un demi-siècle." The latter even claims that, like "Le Cid," like "Andromaque," like "L'École des Femmes," like "Hernani," like "La Dame aux Camélias," it will mark an epoch in French literature—"ouvre le vingtième siècle d'une manière éclatante et triomphale."

In "Cyrano de Bergerac" the stupid cadet, Christian de Neuvillette, gains the love of the *précieuse* Roxane through the intellectual mediation of Cyrano, who also loves her. Cyrano writes love-letters for the young cadet, even disguises his voice, and pleads, hidden, in passionate verse of love to Roxane, who believes she hears all from Christian at her side. She loves Christian, as she says, not for his beauty, but for his soul, his heart; this soul, this heart are those of Cyrano de Bergerac. Later she is undeceived.

In 'The Story of an Untold Love,' Whitely, the stupid millionaire editor, publishes as his own the work of the brilliant but obscure writer Rudolf Hartzman (alias Donald Maitland) in order to gain the affections of Maisie, the modern *précieuse*, whom they both love. She perceives "that no man but one of noble character and pure moral mind could write from such a standpoint," and is almost won. Later she discovers the deception, and gives her hand, of course, to Hartzman-Maitland.

Donald Maitland is cousin to Maisie, Cyrano de Bergerac to Roxane. In place of Christian, the inane peacock, Cyrano, the "perfit gentil knight," and Roxane, the sweet *précieuse* of Louis XIII. chivalry, put Mr. Whitely, the inflated Philistine, Rudolf Hartzmann (alias Maitland), the modern Sir Walter Scott, and Maisie, the rather sophisticated heroine of *fin de siècle* American literary life, and you have practically the same story. All contiguity ends here, of course, and is simply fortuitous.

Edward Meyer.

Western Reserve University.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As regards my statement that ten copies of the book in question could have been sent by mail for 90 cents, Miss Hapgood remarks that she is "not so sure about that." My assertion, however, was not a matter of conjecture, but of fact. Six copies of the book in two packages were sent by mail to the same address and reached their destination in two weeks at a cost of 52 cents for postage. It is easy to calculate that ten copies of the book sent by mail would have cost less than 90 cents. I have lived in Germany altogether more than twenty-five years, and during my residence there have received scores of books from the United States, England, France, and Italy. These books have been usually sent by mail as printed matter, and have always been promptly delivered without any extra charge. From England I have received several times a dozen or more books sent in a single package through the post for parcels. In such cases the package must pass through the custom-house. A card is then brought to the dwelling of the person to whom the package is addressed, informing him that it is in the custom-house. For this service a fee of 10 pfennigs (about 2 cents) is charged. He then goes or sends to the custom-house, where the official, on being informed that the package contains books, very rarely opens it, but marks it free and permits it to be carried off without any charge whatever.

Miss Hapgood gives her experience with parcels sent from Russia to Germany, but these packages must have been sent by express agencies or as freight. She does not seem to be aware of the fact that there is no Government package postal service between Russia and Germany. In this respect Russia is in precisely the same condition as the United States. The additional dues of which she complains were levied by the agents of the Russian express companies in Germany, just as similar dues are levied by the German agents of American express companies. Her experience, therefore, only confirms my statements concerning foreign expressage. There is no German monopoly of the kind of which she speaks, and her assertion that the German Government "permits that packet company to seize prepaid mail matter at its own sweet will" is utterly untrue. Her censure of the stamp tax on newspapers in Austria is perfectly just, but wholly irrelevant to the subject under discussion.

Repeated efforts have been made to induce the American Government to establish a package postal service with other members of the postal union; but these efforts have been constantly defeated by the American express companies. A contribution to a campaign fund is of more importance in the eyes of our politicians than the general welfare of the people. P.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s first spring announcements embrace 'Outlines of the Earth's History,' illustrated, by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'The Play of Animals,' by Prof. Karl Groos; 'The Art of Taxidermy,' illustrated, by John Rowley; 'Familiar Life in Field and Forest,' illustrated, by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Studies of Good and Evil,' by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'Political Crime,' by Louis Proal; 'Psychologic Foundations of Education,' by Dr. William T. Harris; 'Italian Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett; and 'A French Volunteer in the War of Independence (The Chevalier de Pontgibaud),' translated by Robert B. Douglas.

Macmillan Co. will make a book of Mr. Frank Stockton's serial now running in *St. Nicholas*, with a slightly altered title, 'Buccaneers and Pirates of Our Coasts,' and will shortly have ready 'The Loves of the Lady Arabella,' a novel by Miss Molly Elliot Seawell.

By special arrangement with the Macmillan Co., the Crosscup & Sterling Co., No. 114 Fifth Avenue, will publish in June a new, complete, and limited edition of the Life and Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, in fourteen volumes, of which four will contain the Memoir by his son, and will be issued also separately to match the present large-paper editions of the Works. The number of copies will be 500.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Faith and Doubt in the Poets of the Century,' by the Rev. R. A. Armstrong; 'Henry VIII. and the Reformation of the Church of England,' by the Rev. William Frederick Faber; 'The Construction of the Bible,' by Prof. Walter F. Adeney; and 'The Conquered World,' by the Rev. Robert F. Horton.

Fleming H. Revell Co. state that the second volume of the Rev. James S. Dennis's 'Christian Missions and Social Progress' (the first already reviewed in these columns) will not be ready till late in the autumn. It will be fortified with statistical tables.

'English Etymology,' a select glossary by Prof. Friedrich Kluge of Freiburg and Prof. Frederick Lutz of Albion College, Mich., is to be issued at once by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. It aims to serve as an introduction to the history of the English language.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Ethics of Hobbes,' by Prof. E. Hershey Sneath of Yale.

L'Echo de la Semaine, Boston, has begun the publication of a new series of select short French stories, with English notes by Prof. A. N. Van Daell of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

David Nutt, 270 Strand, London, expects to publish on May 15 'The English Emersons, Emmersons, or Embersons,' by P. H. Emerson, M.B., B.A. (Cantab.). On March 12 discovery was made of the baptisms of the children of Thomas and Elizabeth Emerson, who emigrated to Ipswich, Mass., in 1638, and from whom the poet Emerson was descended. The edition will be limited as follows: 50 copies *de luxe* and 250 copies ordinary, at $16.00 and $8.00 respectively by subscription in advance.

There is a steady flow of reprints to our table, and we must report progress on some of them. From Messrs. Scribner we have volumes 3, 4, 5 of the archaic 'Spectator,' edited by G. Gregory Smith, each with its portrait frontispiece—of Steele, Pope, Budgell—and all handy to hold if not (as it seems to us) enticing typographically. The same firm (in connection with Chapman & Hall, London) have added eight imposing volumes to their Gadshill Dickens, viz.: 'David Copperfield' (2), 'Our Mutual Friend' (2), 'Dombey and Son' (2), 'Great Expectations,' and 'A Tale of Two Cities.' Mr. Lang's introductions are not devoid of signs of the weariness which such perfunctory undertakings seldom fail to engender, and they are hardly to be compared in interest with the businesslike historical prefaces of the younger Dickens. The Scribners also add a volume (fifth of the 'History of Frederick II.') to the very handsome and very inexpensive Centenary Edition of Carlyle; and 'Rhymes of Childhood' to the Complete Works of James Whitcomb Riley (Homestead Edition)—a collection not exactly described by its title; and, so far as it is, raising a question, not of the poet's cleverness, but of the desirability of filling the youth-

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ful mind with (generally) dialect jingle and bad grammar. Mr. Riley's sympathy with childhood none will dispute.

A tasteful volume, in compressed but readable print, has been made by Small, Maynard & Co. of Walt Whitman's Complete Prose Works, with the early portrait for frontispiece, and with other pertinent personal illustrations, including (strange to say) the well-known physiognomy of Elias Hicks. Very much of this collection possesses an historical interest, and it is a pity that an index was not joined to it; witness the accounts of Hicks, Emerson, Father Taylor, etc., and the war experiences generally.

The admirable "Little Masterpieces" edited by Prof. Bliss Perry (Doubleday & McClure Co.) are extended with 'Benjamin Franklin'—being characteristic and famous excerpts from his Autobiography, Poor Richard, etc.; and 'Daniel Webster'—his "Adams and Jefferson" and Reply to Hayne. Both have excellent portraits.

The special feature of the thirty-fifth annual edition of 'The Statesman's Year-book' (Macmillan), a plump volume well past the limit of 1,000 pages, is the series of maps and diagrams in the forefront. The first of these is of West Africa with reference to the Niger question. The disputed Hinterland is relatively a small territory, but as it lies for some three hundred miles along the river, fronting the Royal Niger Company's domain, it to that extent affects free navigation up to the boundary of the acknowledged French "sphere," which then envelops both banks to the sources. But Germany too is at hand to profit by a division, and the whole parcelled situation finely suggests the pains the western Powers have been at to establish points of contact and friction in barbarous regions. A series of three colored maps exhibits the world viewed as the recipient of British exports. Finally, the rise and fall of imports and exports for the leading nations of the earth in the past twenty-five years is shown diagramatically in several folded plates. The general contents of this firmly established handbook need no praise.

'Port Royal Education,' by Félix Cadet, translated, with an index, by Adnah D. Jones (Scribners), contains two hundred pages of extracts from the writings of MM. de Port Royal, preceded by a treatise on these writers, their works and their activity in the short-lived but influential Jansenist schools. The book is well adapted for the many who have no access to or taste for the numerous and heavy publications emanating from the members of Port Royal, or who do not feel disposed even to tackle the voluminous histories of that famous institution.

The author of 'Dodo' has made a much more agreeable novel of 'The Vintage; A Romance of the Greek War of Independence' (Harpers). It is a pleasant book, in spite of the horrors of the scenes at the siege of Tripoli, and has sufficient historical foundation. The brave young peasant, Mitsos, as he works among the vines and "sings in his boat on the bay," is quite idyllic; and he becomes heroic in his personal sacrifices for his country. The military and political situation during the quarrel of the bishops with the army has something Eastern and mediæval, which perhaps helps to explain some of the difficulties in the way of establishing Greece in full independence. Vanity, pride, and self-seeking are fearful enemies to patriotic effort, and Mr. Benson's 'The Vintage' is but another testimony to the need of further purging for this poor nation.

The April number of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) offers a large proportion of interesting themes, of which two in particular are calculated for either half of the Anglo-Saxon world. Dr. Charles Gross throws a deal of light on "The Early History of the Ballot in England," concerning which much had been forgotten even by reformers from Bentham to Macaulay, and incidentally plucks from the Dutch cap another feather placed there by the late Douglas Campbell. Dr. Gross discovers secret voting in some boroughs as early as the fourteenth century. "In our age of jealous office-seekers," he remarks, "we should remember that for centuries office-holding was regarded [in England] as a burden; that the election originally determined upon whom an irksome duty was to be imposed." Prof. Jameson's paper on "The Early Political Uses of the Word *Convention*" begins on this side of the Atlantic and ends in Scotland, and is really a very learned gloss on the rubric *Convention* in the Oxford Dictionary, albeit not obviously dependent on this authority. Notable, among the book reviews, are an anonymous criticism of Bache's 'Life of General Meade' and Prof. Macvane's survey of the Report of the Venezuela Commission, which, he finds, in spite of anti-British bias, "casts a curious light on the extravagant statements once current here as to 'English expansion' of claims beyond those made by the Dutch." Of great interest is the announcement that the third report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission will present a first instalment of the correspondence of John C. Calhoun.

According to a compilation made by the *Schlesische Zeitung*, covering the period from the close of the Summer semester of 1896 to the beginning of 1898, the twenty-one German universities bestowed the doctor's degree on 2,371 candidates. The largest number is credited to Erlangen, namely 332, while Berlin follows with nearly one hundred less, namely, 237. Munich reports 220, Würzburg, 181; Leipzig, 177; Greifswald, 133; Heidelberg, 116; Freiburg, 107; Göttingen, 103; Halle, 92; Bonn, 89; Rostock, 83; Kiel, 81; Marburg, 72; Jena, 70; Breslau, 64; Strassburg, 60; Tübingen, 58; Königsberg, 48; Giessen, 38; and the Catholic Academy at Münster, with only two faculties, 9. These figures are not at all in proportion to the attendance. In this respect Berlin, Munich, and Leipzig far outdistance all other competitors and form a group by themselves. Rather singularly, the three Bavarian universities, Munich, Erlangen, and Würzburg, furnish a contingency of 733 new doctors, while the nine Prussian universities, together with Münster as the tenth, reported only 928 promotions. About one-half of these promotions were in the medical department, namely, 1,187, followed by the philosophical faculties with a total of 829, the law, with 339, and the theological, with 20. The last mentioned figures are about the average for the theological faculties, which grant a D.D. only *honoris causa* and no longer in course. A doctor of divinity is as rare in Germany as he is frequent in America. This is, on the face of matters, noteworthy, since Germany is the chief factor and force in the theological ups and downs of our day.

The relief map of New Jersey emanating from the State Geological Survey has been provided with a very desirable and convenient overlay on transparent paper, bearing the geographical names of the leading towns, mountains, lakes, and other localities. This overlay is in three sheets, readily applied to the mount for the purpose of orientation.

—The Committee of Seven appointed by the American Historical Association at its meeting at Christmas, 1896, to consider the question of the teaching of history in the secondary schools of the country, held an important meeting at the University of Michigan on April 8 and 9. At this session the committee carefully investigated the general subject of college and university entrance requirements in history, with special reference to the kind and amount of history to be accepted as units in the so-called optional system of entrance examinations, as well as to what should be included under a rigid system of entrance requirements. The question of the lines of division between periods of history, and the content and emphasis within periods, were again discussed with a view of determining what periods and branches should be recommended for one, two, three, or four-year history courses in secondary schools. Although certain extremely important conclusions were arrived at, they have not as yet been finally formulated, but it is hoped and expected that at the next meeting of the American Historical Association, to be held in New Haven in December, the work of the committee will be so far advanced that a full report of its deliberations and recommendations may be presented to the Association, and, if approved, through it to secondary educators throughout the country. It has seemed at once unadvisable and impossible to present, as had been hoped, either a full or partial report before the opening of the next school year. The final report will not by any means be merely a study of college entrance requirements in history, but a study of history teaching in secondary schools generally, as regards courses, methods, equipment, and bibliography. It will embody the results of conferences with teachers in secondary schools, circulars, study of problems abroad by specialists and in this country by communication and personal consultation with teachers' associations everywhere. A bibliography of the entire field of history as a pedagogical subject is now being prepared by a student of the Library School at Albany, N. Y. So far as English titles go, it will be nearly exhaustive, and a full (through not a complete) bibliography of titles in modern European languages will be added. Besides this, shorter bibliographies of special value to teachers will be issued as soon as may be. Further, the committee hopes to present in its report several general methods of teaching history, numerous and flexible enough to be adapted to most contingencies and personalities in history instruction.

—Besides offering one European and one American fellowship each year, the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ has undertaken the task of recommending women who wish to study at foreign universities. It occasionally happens, among women as among men, that some one who is thoroughly unfitted to profit by the difficult lectures given at the German universities, wishes, for some freakish reason or other, to listen to them. Such persons are very apt to conduct themselves in all sorts of queer ways, and to cast dis-

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credit upon the students who come for the purpose of serious study and who have had the right sort of preparation. A committee has therefore been formed by the Association which has added to itself distinguished professors of different American colleges, and which has put itself in communication with the principal universities of Germany. It will give an official letter of introduction to any young woman who applies to it and who can show that she has had an adequate amount of previous training. The idea has been received with much favor by the German university professors, who are often not in a position to know the difference between (say) Walla Walla University and a university of a more recognized standing. As an illustration of the good work which women are now doing in the higher ranks of the profession of teaching, it may be mentioned that one of the applicants this year for a letter of recommendation is already a professor in full charge of the department of mathematics in one of the agricultural colleges of New England, with several assistants under her who are men. The president of the college writes concerning her: "Miss —— is an excellent teacher, and has performed all her duties to the full and entire satisfaction of the president and corporation of the institution. The corporation has now given her a leave of absence for a year and a half. She has served on the committees for our courses of study, has been secretary of the faculty, and chairman of the board of examiners. In all these positions she has dispatched the work that presented itself with more than ordinary ability and cheerfulness of disposition." It is not every professor of the opposite sex who can show so good a record as this last.

—Mr. Edward Dana Durand's 'Finances of New York City' (Macmillan) is in part a compilation and in part a critical history of the subject. The statistical information given is valuable, and the author's history presents a good view of the whole subject. As a whole, the researches of the author tend to confirm the popular view that the trend of municipal forces in New York is towards a highly centralized management in the hands of a representative board. He says, indeed (p. 281), that "a large part of the people" have at last come to believe that the city legislature would become an improvable body (capable of financial control) if it only had more power; but his own review shows that the old legislature was deprived of its power because of the corrupt use made of it. He admits that the new Municipal Assembly is only the simulacrum of a legislature, and that the real control of the finances remains in the hands of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, except so far as the Legislature usurps it and the courts limit it. The great American contribution to municipal economics is really the discovery that the judiciary may be used to curb the wastefulness of debt-contracting bodies, through a constitutional limit. Were it not for the 10 per cent. limit on expenditure introduced into our Constitution some years since, we should be now on the high road to a new Tweed Ring. Mr. Durand does not seem to be in sympathy with the theory that a city is a business corporation which those who have something at stake ought to govern. His objection is that a city is a place of residence, where thousands of citizens who cannot accumulate property are compelled to live, and that the poor do actually pay taxes through rent or prices of commodities (p. 283). We do not perceive what bearing this has on the question, which is whether people should be allowed to raise money out of property they have not accumulated, and spend it on themselves. The only check on this that has ever been devised is to say that only the thrifty shall tax others. It is only in politics that the man who cannot manage his own affairs with foresight and prudence is allowed a voice in the management of the concerns of his fellows. It may, of course, be said on the other side that, although the present tax-laying body is fairly representative of the property-owners, it is still often very wasteful and lax; but defects will always exist. Because you cannot have a perfect check is no reason for not having any. The moral of the book is that every cent that can be spent will be spent. Is the dream of a great community permanently rich and at the same time without debt as far off as ever? We notice (p. 335) that the debt of San Francisco is merely nominal.

—The Cambridge (England) Antiquarian Society has published the first volume of the Luard Memorial Series, entitled 'Grace Book A,' and containing the proctors' accounts and other records of the University of Cambridge for the years 1454-1488 (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes). These ancient accounts are the dryest possible reading, but have their importance for the student of the days before the Renaissance. It is interesting to reflect that there was such a thing at Cambridge as a University Library before printed books were known except as curiosities. The University made but a precarious provision for the Librarian's salary. In 1463 (November 3) there is a memorandum providing that this functionary, called "custos librarie," should receive 40 shillings annually from the rent of the schools of Canon Law. On June 24 there is an entry of 20 shillings paid him, but this entry was subsequently erased. The Library is building when these accounts open. Expenses for the glazing of its windows and for lead are itemized in June, 1455. Also (and this is one of the heavy expenses of the University for the new Library) we have repeated sums laid out upon chains for chaining books to the library desks. The fire in the new college of Kings endangered the books, and the University paid roundly for the care of them during that emergency. In July, 1470, the University receives fourteen books, chiefly from the Earl of Worcester, pays for the covers, clasps, and chains; also for instruments by means of which they were labelled with their donors' names, as well as for the engrossing of a letter concerning the gift. Lists of the books on tablets hung in the Library were provided for. Scribes were paid for writing a list of all the books, which was sent to the Chancellor in 1477. The Chancellor figures as the giver of twelve books, for which the University provides chains in 1478. In the following year he gives twenty-seven volumes. The list of 1477 thus appears to have been sent to him as a means of enlightening his generosity. In his editorial Introduction, Mr. Stanley Leathes gives a list of the books pawned, many of them several times, for ready money. It is curious to note the connection, at Cambridge as at Oxford, of the beginnings of the University Library with this practice of raising the wind by a deposit of one or more volumes as security for a loan. Also, the casual mention in 1486 of a printed book received "ex dono Magistri stoyle" is noteworthy.

—The need, practically felt and practically provided for, of being on good terms with generous benefactors is illustrated by an item of five marks expended by the "dominus Cancellarius" in 1464 "pro placacione domini Comitis Wigorniæ." This is apparently the same John Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, who gave books to the Library. During the illness of Henry VI., the University expended sixpence upon occasion of a procession made in 1454 for his recovery, and in 1459 they pay fourpence to the cross-bearer "in processione pro bono statu regis et regni." In the same year they pay Master Oliver King, the Proctor, 27 shillings for expenses in seeking out the King with letters from the University, and a further sum of 25 shillings and 4 pence for expenses in attending upon the King's chancellor, and securing his good will in a matter of University business. In the following year, we mark an item of 4 shillings and 8 pence "pro vino pro domino Cancellario angliæ;" so that entertainment would seem to have been one sure means of currying favor. The whole arrangement and administration of "chests" founded by benefactors who wished to secure for their souls the prayers of frequenters of the University, gives a remarkable insight into mediæval practices. These chests, containing the sum bequeathed by the several benefactors whom they commemorated, were deposited in churches and administered by two Masters. Loans upon pledges were made, and if it came to a sale of the pledge, the sum loaned reverted to the chest, the balance to the borrower, who was bound to pray for the benefactor from whose chest he received his loan. Annual masses, too, for these benefactors were celebrated by the University, and their names were also gratefully mentioned with those of other benefactors at general masses. Several of these chests figure in these proctors' accounts from 1454 to 1487.

—The late Guido Fridolin Verbeck, who died at Tokyo on the 10th day of March, was the best alien speaker of Japanese in the world. He was "a man without a country," having left Holland before mature age, and the United States before naturalization. He represented the best traditions of both countries, while in heart and soul an American. Born in Zeist, Utrecht, January 23, 1830, this son of the Lutheran burgomaster was thoroughly educated in Dutch, German, French, and English. He thus obtained that mental discipline which enabled him to talk easily five languages, and to use eight with scholarly accuracy. His course in mechanical engineering at Utrecht further fitted him for nearly forty years of the most varied usefulness in Japan. In the early fifties he spent several years in Arkansas and Wisconsin, building marine engines; but his missionary zeal, caught in childhood from the Moravians of Zeist, led him into the ministry through the Auburn Theological Seminary. With the Rev. Drs. S. R. Brown, D.D., and Duane B. Simmons, M.D., he went to Japan, reaching Nagasaki in November, 1859. He began at once to help inquirers in all paths of science, and quickly gained the confidence of high and low. He was made teacher of the Government school of languages, and under him were educated scores

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of men of the Samurai class who have since been active or eminent in making the new Japan. When that students' movement, continued during a century, brought about a revolution in 1868 and set the young Mikado in supreme authority in Yedo (now changed to Tokyo), which was made the national capital, the leaders called their old friend and helper from Nagasaki to aid and advise them. For several years Mr. Verbeck was the sole confidential adviser of the new Government. During the decade of his Tokyo service as unofficial attaché of the Cabinet, his multifarious services were those which only a cosmopolitan linguist and scholar, absolutely trusted by a naturally suspicious and sensitive people, could perform. He translated into Japanese the Code Napoléon, Bluntschli's 'Staatsrecht,' 'Two Thousand Legal Maxims,' with commentary, the constitutions of the states of Europe and America, forest laws, compendiums of forms, and hundreds of other legal and political documents. He elaborated the national scheme of popular education in 1871. He was immediately influential in stopping persecution of native Christians. It was he who in 1869 conceived the idea, and planned the details, of that embassy round the world which in 1871-'73 made Japan so well known abroad, and which so potently turned the national mind to ideas of progress. When its personnel was made known, Dr. Verbeck found that over one-half were his former pupils at Nagasaki. Returning to direct missionary work in 1878, Dr. Verbeck spent seven years in translating the Book of Psalms. In 1890, desiring to become an American citizen, and finding insuperable obstacles on account of long absence, he asked to be naturalized as a Japanese. Unable as yet, in view of the revision of treaties, to grant his request, the Japanese Government gave him a passport allowing him or any member of his family to reside or travel anywhere in the Japanese empire. Rarely seeking or allowing even ordinary publicity concerning his work, it is to be hoped he has left some reminiscences or sketches of history.

GABRIELE D'ANNUNZIO.

The Intruder. Translated by Arthur Hornblow. George H. Richmond.

The Maidens of the Rocks. Translated by Annetta Halliday-Antona and Giuseppe Antona. George H. Richmond.

The American translator of Gabriele D'Annunzio's novels has not followed the order of their composition. More than a year ago Mr. Hornblow published 'The Triumph of Death,' the third of a series called "Romances of the Rose"; now he gives us the second of that series, known in Italian as 'L'Innocente,' in French as 'L'Intrus,' and in English as 'The Intruder.' In this arrangement Mr. Hornblow appears to have been guided by the patent-medicine formula which advises a mild dose at first, to be increased if the system can stand it. The public, having absorbed 'The Triumph of Death' without serious revolt, is assumed to be able to stomach 'The Intruder.' Of the two, 'The Intruder' is the more concentrated and vehement study of lust. The author is not so often diverted from his theme by the attractions of other forms of disease in the world about him. His imagination, with its power of producing vague, mystic impressions, its detachment from actuality, has almost no share in the performance. His consciousness of corruption is equally evident, but his perception of any reasonably healthy and clean estate even more obscure and limited. The story is a confession by Tullio Hermil of his indiscriminate adultery, of his wife's infidelity, and of his murder of her child—a crime tacitly acquiesced in by her.

The author's ideal of virtue and high morality is expressed in Juliana Hermil, and needs no comment. In one way the whole book is less shocking than this bare statement of the drama, for neither Hermil, nor Juliana, nor the sacrificial infant has much objective reality, but serves chiefly to give definiteness and continuity to subjective discussion of instincts, impulses, and emotions which the word "depraved" describes correctly but not harshly. The incidents, like the persons, are of no great importance for their own sake; nothing is very significant except the spectacle of a man abnormally sensitive to physical impressions, dismally indecent, sometimes brutally coarse, thrusting himself before the world naked and unashamed. It is true that he has not thrust himself upon an English-speaking world, has not deliberately exposed his unhappy personality to a people alien in temperament, unsympathetic in thought, and of hostile literary tradition. Mr. Hornblow and others must bear the burden of that indiscretion and settle it with their phantom consciences. It would be wise for many reasons if English reviewers would consent to ignore these miserable translations which put the author in the worst possible light. But the shadow of a European reputation is upon us, and we cannot bear an imputation of cowardice, or stupidity, or defective culture, or a quite ridiculous, and of course hypocritical, preference for reticence about the infamies of human nature. So, far from observing a policy of silence during the last two or three months, English reviewers have been discussing the appalling Italian with a fluency which he might envy, and often with an obscurity such as he achieves only in his most mystic moments.

All of us, English and American, know perfectly well that the most licentious of our own literature is vigorous and clean in comparison with D'Annunzio's "Romances of the Rose," and that, in these later days, a similar corruption has been paraded only by a few emasculated creatures whose notoriety has been transient. The most unscrupulous and ingenious of us all would have to be hanged at daybreak if our salvation should be made dependent on a clear and exact statement of any loss to English literature or life by such limitation. To make these simple statements would seem an easy duty, yet that European reputation, and the terror of seeming to care more for morals than for art, have, in the blunt phrase of the street, knocked most of the critics silly. They all hasten to assure us that in English justice cannot be done to one who needs the benefit of both justice and mercy, but here is the beginning and end of certainty and unanimity.

The great attention given to the morality of the books shows how we can't help caring more for that than for any kind of art that chiefly defines itself by shocking every feeling for morality. It is discovered by one buoyant spirit that D'Annunzio is not immoral because, though lust is his theme, he deals with it philosophically, and his philosophy condemns it. By his philosophy is probably meant his speculations on the causes of effects, his implications and conclusions about the reason of existence and its meanings. Though his philosophy is, indeed, a most voluble arraignment of lust, to a mind unconcerned for justification or apology it must also appear the essence of his corruption. It refers all of life to physical sensation, degrades mind, and annihilates spirit. The philosophy summarized in "Let us eat, drink, and be merry, for to-morrow we die," proclaims at least a hearty animalism, and is a message of light and joy beside D'Annunzio's "Let us desire and sate and loathe ourselves, only to plunge into grosser abomination, until, worn out, diseased, mad, we die." A philosophy which assumes universal uncleanness, indicating no means of purification while impotently frothing about the unpleasantness of our state, is not a philosophy to temper representations of immorality.

The critics who sagaciously wink at the question of morals and expend themselves in eulogy of the author's perception of artistic beauty and power "to recreate a beautiful world" out of any material, however unpromising, are on safer ground. As a race we are very feeble in perception of artistic beauty and unsure of judgment. A bold enough bluff will at least succeed in producing much trouble and confusion of spirit. Therefore, when we are told that D'Annunzio is compound of pagan joyousness and Latin delight in mere physical sensation, which we can never understand, but should take for granted and admire and wonder at with respectful awe, few of us have the self-assurance to turn a deaf ear to such well-meant admonition. Yet it may occur to any one that as a figure for joy, pagan or Christian, D'Annunzio would never recognize himself; and a little reflection will suggest to English readers that what he most clearly derives from the pagans (from Greek and Latin literature) is not joy, but a depressing fatalism, which has not given his work the dignity of inevitable tragedy, or the courage of stoicism, or, the beauty of tranquil, unemotional intellectuality. Beauty of phrase and image he undoubtedly commands, and yet his taste is so bad that he can begin a sentence in the language of poetry and finish it in the language of pathology. The only influence for good he has had on Italian literature has been to inspire a closer attention to style. The "Latin renaissance" foreseen by M. de Vogüé several years ago has never come off. D'Annunzio has not the stuff of a leader in him. No writer whose whole power lies in the expression of himself ever led a movement or founded a school. Any confusion of opinion about the kind of power on which his claim to rank in letters must rest, is dispelled by his last work.

Having completed the "Romances of the Rose," after a period of what his translator calls "internal decomposition," D'Annunzio began the "Romances of the Lily," and the first of that series has just been translated under the title, 'The Maidens of the Rocks.' This is almost entirely an expression of his poetical quality, defying the test of reason and having almost no relation to the facts of life. The beautiful maidens, daughters of a princely house and doomed to madness, may symbolize something, but ordinary intelligence displays only proper caution in not hazarding a guess. The emotional atmos-

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phere is all that is worth considering, and its texture is so delicate and mysterious that the breath of inquiry puts it in peril of destruction. D'Annunzio has been compared with the English Pre-Raphaelites, the French Naturalists, the Russian Realists. His likeness to any of these is superficial—hardly more than may be attributed to the pressure of his age. But in the 'Maidens of the Rocks' there is an essential likeness, of spirit and of indefinable poetic mysticism, to the American poet who owed least to external influences, Edgar Allan Poe. The impression of misery and madness revives the impression of 'The House of Usher,' and the picture of the walled garden set in a land rent and scarred by burning lava calls up instantly that mad vision of

"—— the dark tarn of Auber
By the ghoul-haunted woodlands of Weir."

The translation of 'The Maidens of the Rocks,' done by Annetta and Giuseppe Antona, is as faulty in detail as a translation can be, with abundant elementary mistakes in grammar; but it gives the impression of the original much more forcibly than do the translations of the "Romances of the Rose." In this first "Romance of the Lily" there are but few lapses into indecency; which suggests that, after another period of "internal decomposition," the author, whose sins have been as scarlet, may appear white as snow.

BOOKS ON ART AND ARTISTS.

Letters of Dante Gabriel Rossetti to William Allingham, 1854-1870. By George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, Editor of Boswell's 'Life of Johnson,' etc. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

J. F. Millet and Rustic Art. By Henry Naegely (Henry Gaëlyn). London: Elliot Stock. 1898.

The Bases of Design. By Walter Crane. London: George Bell & Sons. 1898.

Windows: A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. By Lewis F. Day. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

Peter Paul Rubens. By R. A. M. Stevenson. (The Portfolio.) The Macmillan Co.

Painting and Decorating. By Walter J. Pearce. London: Charles Griffin & Co., Ltd.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

There is more about poetry than about painting in Rossetti's letters to Allingham, naturally enough, considering to whom they were written; and there is more anecdote and personal gossip in the volume than information or discussion on either painting or poetry. Much the greater part of what is amusing in the book is supplied by the editor, whose notes are often much longer than the letters to which they refer. Dr. Hill has evidently much knowledge of his own, and he has used a drag-net on all published and unpublished sources of information, and where Rossetti mentions a name the editor instantly supplies a description or a story. By these means he has made a rather entertaining collection out of letters which are for the most part very bald and trivial. There are hardly half-a-dozen letters in the set that contain anything of importance, or anything worth publishing either in itself or for any light it throws upon the pre-Raphaelite movement.

What is most welcome is the reproduction of a couple of drawings by Miss Siddal. The Brotherhood were all crazy about Miss Siddal. Ruskin bought all her drawings, and thought them better than Rossetti's "or almost anybody's"; and Rossetti himself, who thought none but the P. R.'s worthy to be included in the illustrated Tennyson, wanted her included. Here are two of the drawings, and they are almost incredible. Some of Rossetti's own early drawings are feeble enough in all conscience, and some, even, of Millais's; but such childish inefficiency as Miss Siddal's is phenomenal. Perhaps they contain the treasures of sentiment that her admirers found in them, but her knowledge of drawing is about equal to that of any school-girl. One is tempted to wonder if, in her case as in many others, the amount of "feeling" discoverable by the willing mind is not in inverse ratio to the amount of knowledge. There is so much else to look at in a drawing that is well done that nobody thinks of looking for sentiment in it; bud if a drawing is obviously bad, it *must* have sentiment, for it has nothing else. Rossetti did in the end achieve certain technical virtues, though his work always remained faulty enough to please, but it is well known that Millais became intolerable as soon as he learned to paint. We all know now that his was an essentially vulgar and bourgeois soul, but pre-Raphaelite sentiment clung to his work so long as pre-Raphaelite feebleness of technique impeded his hand. If one would be credited with a poetic soul, it is a great mistake to learn to paint.

Mr. Naegely's book on Millet is disappointing. The author knew Millet and is on friendly terms with the painter's family, and one hoped for new matter from him. A little new matter there is, but very little. One or two errors are corrected, one or two fragments of Millet's manuscript are now first printed, and we are given a series of letters from Millet's grandmother and mother. These things are valuable and welcome, but they constitute a very small part of the volume before us. They make it necessary that that part shall be consulted by the future writer on Millet, who will, nevertheless, wish that the rest of the volume had never been written. The bulk of it consists of reflections on "Rustic Art," which are more noticeable for energy of statement than for lucidity of thought. The author is on the right track in protesting against the delusion that Millet was somehow a great artist in spite of an inability to paint and to draw, and feels dimly the truth that the master could both paint and draw in a masterly way; but he is, unfortunately, unable to explain what he feels, and the impression left by the most of what is here written is that of sound and fury, signifying, indeed, something, but something very misty. We are a little inclined to protest, at any rate, against this phrase, "Rustic Art." There is art, and there is that which is not art. Millet was an artist and the lineal descendant of Michelangelo; his "rusticity" is more or less an accident. When his work shall be analyzed by a competent critic who shall be willing to ignore the nature of his subjects, and to point out the relation of his art to all the other good art that has existed, we shall be in the way to understand him better. It is much easier to talk of subjects than of technical matters, and to sentimentalize about the "Angelus" than to point out the purely artistic merits of one of the great painters of the world. So far as his "peasantry" goes, wherein is Millet better than Jules Breton? The infinite difference between the two is a difference of art. One was a master of synthetic drawing and color, and the other—well, it is not here necessary to characterize the other. The book on Millet remains, however, to be written.

Another disappointing book is that by Walter Crane. The author explains this, to some extent, in his preface, where, after stating that the substance of his volume "originally formed a series of lectures addressed to the students of the Manchester Municipal School of Art," he adds: "The field covered is an extensive one, and I am conscious that many branches of my subject are only touched, whilst others are treated in a very elementary manner. Every chapter, indeed, might be expanded into a volume, under such far-reaching headings, to give to each section anything like adequate treatment." To the discerning reader this paragraph is doubly explanatory, for not only does it show how the author was tempted to try to cover too great a field in a small book, but its very style betrays the lack of that breadth and grasp and clearness of mind which would be necessary to anything approaching a successful condensation of his matter into a limited compass. It soon becomes evident upon perusal that the system of the book is confined to the "far-reaching headings," and that anything in one chapter might almost as well have fallen in any other. Mr. Crane is one of those who have something to say, but can by no means contrive to say it. What was needed was a clear and systematic statement of principles, condensed almost to a "primer," with few and well-chosen examples. What he has given us is a large and promiscuous selection of examples with the most confused and inadequate thread of comment. There are long passages of many pages where the statement of principles disappears entirely, to make room for what reads like a poor condensation of some general History of Art.

Mr. Day's book on 'Windows' is a very good and very sensible one. It is rather a history of the art of glass than a theoretic treatise on the principles of the art, and it concerns itself almost entirely with the glass of the past and very little with that of to-day. A page or two only is devoted to "new departures," in which the experiments of Mr. La Farge are sympathetically referred to. Mr. Day's own notions of the proper technic of window-making and of the relative value of different methods and epochs are, however, made sufficiently plain. He is almost provokingly catholic, and is ready to admit with heartiness the merit of much work that he must consider to be done on wrong principles; but his general conclusion is undoubtedly that when the art of glass forsook the way of mosaic for that of painting, it sold its proper birthright for a mess of pottage. The more one follows in detail the history of stained glass as here set forth, the more one is likely to be confirmed in the conclusion that the so-called American method is the only logical one, and that our designers have begun to do what was never done before—to apply the talent of educated painters to the bringing out of the natural and essential qualities of glass.

A book in all but form is Mr. Stevenson's monograph on Rubens which forms the January number of the *Portfolio*, and a bet-

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ter book than many within bound covers. Mr. Stevenson is a somewhat extreme advocate of the doctrine of paint for paint's sake, but this, perhaps, makes him the more sympathetic interpreter of that great wielder of the brush. Rubens was, indeed, something more than a technician, or even than a Flemish naturalist, and the queer fusion of traditions in his work and his essentially classic nature still await their definitive interpreter. Mr. Stevenson gives us many acute observations and much clear insight besides the necessary facts and dates, and his contribution to this useful series is a worthy one.

'Painting and Decorating' is a book on a trade rather than on art. Its author is a practical painter and decorator, and his book is something like a series of recipes. He gives chapters on plant and materials, on paper-hanging, distempering, painting, varnishing, graining, gilding, lettering, measuring, and estimating, and coach-painting, as well as some general ideas on ornament and color. The volume is not meant for the artist or the general reader, but seems likely to fulfil its end of usefulness to those intending to become house-painters.

BONAPARTE AND MOREAU.

The Campaign of Marengo, with Comments. By Herbert H. Sargent, 1st Lieut. 2d Cavalry, U. S. A., etc. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 12mo, pp. 240; maps.

Mr. Sargent's former volume on Napoleon's first campaign insures a welcome for this on the campaign of Marengo. We find the same clearness of analysis, the same intelligent comprehension of the situation and lucidity of description. The reader renews the satisfaction with which he perused the former book and approved the plan of separate handy volumes for distinct campaigns.

The critical study of Napoleon's military career is still fruitful. We only gradually free ourselves from the domination of his intellect and his authority. We are kept back from real criticism by the feeling that it is presumptuous for an ordinary man to sit in judgment on his masterpieces. We fall easily into the habit of drawing our canons of criticism from his practice instead of applying rules to his conduct of war. No man was ever more independent than he in reasoning from principle; but we hold our principles with a timid grasp when we find ourselves doubting his infallibility. When Bonaparte swiftly concentrates his forces and strikes right and left as at Montenotte and Castiglione, we applaud to the echo; but when, in the same theatre, he scatters his divisions, makes eccentric movements, and delivers the battle of Marengo piecemeal, we cry out, "Strategy, my boy," and go far afield to hunt reasons for believing that black is white. His amazing good fortune never stood him in better stead than at Marengo, or better won the title to be "his star." Yet fortune might have lavished the same favors on a weaker man, and he would not have known how to use them. There is the difference. Mr. Sargent has modestly thought it necessary to apologize for venturing in his "comments" to bring Bonaparte's movements to the test of military principles. We must thank him for doing so, even if we do not always find our judgment going with the criticism. It is only in that way that we shall learn. He might well have gone further.

The First Consul's relation to Moreau's campaign on the upper Rhine and Danube is properly made part of the history of Marengo. The two campaigns were necessarily parts of one whole. The belittling treatment of Moreau by Napoleon at Saint Helena has been commonly accepted as a sound judgment; but Napoleon was never so unscrupulous as when dealing with rivals. Moreau's service with the Allies after his banishment from France offended French sensibilities, and he has been a striking example of a general who, in his time, had a towering reputation, but who, after his death, had no friends. The French, even Republicans, would not praise him, because he joined the enemies of France, and Germans were willing to ignore him because he was a Frenchman. He fell between two stools. Yet we may be sure that the allied sovereigns would not have made him their chief military adviser in the campaign of 1813 if that of 1800 had not left him with a great European renown. Napoleon's prestige had been greatly shaken by the campaign of Moscow, and it is significant that, over all the generals then prominent, Moreau was taken after a dozen years of retirement—years of activity of armies on a scale to blot out the remembrance of what had gone before. As he spent those years of banishment in America, Americans have a call to see that justice is done him.

General Gourgaud, in the Saint Helena 'Mémoires,' records Napoleon's statement that the First Consul planned that Moreau, whose army lay along the Rhine from Mayence to Basle, should march up the river to Schaffhausen, there build four bridges, cross over and attack the Austrian army's left flank, crush it, and place himself on the line of the enemy's communications at Ulm on the Danube. Napoleon sneeringly said that Moreau was incapable of carrying out or even of understanding such a movement *(incapable d'exécuter et même de comprendre un pareil mouvement)*, and proposed instead to cross the Rhine at Mayence, Strasbourg, and Basle. A compromise was finally made by which a movement on Schaffhausen up the east side of the river and an additional crossing there was added to the others. The sneer has gone into history as a conclusive judgment on Moreau's military intellect, and reappears with regularity. It well illustrates the abdication of independent judgment by military writers in the presence of Napoleon's unscrupulous and audacious egotism.

The merit of Napoleon's plan lay in its simplicity, not its profundity; and, when once stated, "wayfaring men, though fools, shall not err therein." To say that Moreau did not know the value of flank attack and of operating against his enemy's communications, and could not understand them when stated, is ridiculous. Neither Moreau, nor Hoche, nor Dumouriez, nor Masséna, nor Jourdan, nor Saint-Cyr, nor any other of the generals who had won victories for the Republic, was so ignorant of the a b c of military art as that, or so fat-witted that he could not comprehend so simple a plan and its advantages. The difficulty lay in the execution, not in the comprehension of it. Moreau's army had wintered in the Rhine Valley, and was in four corps—three of them along the river from Basle through Strasbourg to Mayence, and one in Switzerland. To concentrate at Schaffhausen would require an average march of a hundred miles by the flank for three-fourths of the army, and the building of the four bridges at their crossing-place from material to be collected on the spot. At and below Basle the French had three bridges, with fortified bridge-heads on the German side. These were to be left unused while the long flank march was made to a place where there was no means of crossing but such as could be improvised, for the army was not supplied with pontoons. The Austrians under Kray were on the opposite bank, keenly watching the French, each army something more than a hundred thousand strong. The bend of the river around the highlands of the Black Forest made it a much shorter march for Kray to concentrate near Schaffhausen than for Moreau. It was not a question of stealing a day's march on an adversary, it was a flank march of several days for a great army, whose movements would almost certainly be known. The greater part of the march would be in Switzerland, where was much dislike of the French masters, and a volunteer body of Swiss *émigrés* was serving with the Austrians.

Under these circumstances, Moreau thought the movement could not be concealed, and that it was therefore better and quicker to cross by the bridges already in his possession. Gouvion Saint-Cyr, who was second in rank to Moreau, and who wrote after Gourgaud's 'Mémoires' had appeared, believed a surprise would have been impossible, especially as Basle, through which the greater part of the army must march, swarmed with intelligent and enterprising spies, who were in good relations with the Swiss. Moreau's movement was, in fact, a success, and he concentrated his army against Kray's left wing, building bridges at Schaffhausen behind his army after the movement. Napoleon's plan not being tried, historians are at liberty to consider it done because it was suggested, and to tell us how much Moreau lost by not adopting it. Had Napoleon tried to carry it out himself, his unmatched fertility of resource in the face of difficulties might have found some other way if this had failed; but then he would have told us at Saint Helena of the new plans he carried out, and not of the old one that miscarried. Moreau's own plan, however, was to attack Kray at his right centre opposite Strasbourg, and Marshal Saint-Cyr tells us that the Austrians were so scattered that this promised excellent results, with the advantage of opening the campaign earlier by nearly a month, when time was of immense importance in the start of Napoleon to relieve Masséna, who was enduring starvation in Genoa.

Another gloss upon the history of this campaign which we often meet with, and which Mr. Sargent seems to accept, is that Napoleon thought of taking command of the army of the Rhine in person, and that Moreau's jealousy prevented his serving as second. There were such other reasons that it is misleading to speak of jealousy. Bonaparte was violating the Constitution by taking personal command in the field at all, when he was First Consul. He could use Berthier in that way in the Marengo campaign, as he could use him in any other *coup d'état*, but Moreau would not be so used. Berthier was nominally General-in-Chief, and Bonaparte was apparently a guest at headquarters; but most people fail to remember that Berthier was even the man-of-straw, so completely did his master nullify him.

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The Army of the Rhine had not come under the witchery of Bonaparte's personal leadership, and its *esprit de corps* retained a republican tinge to the end. Its officers were slow to adopt the display which became fashionable under the Empire. Even as late as the Russian campaign of 1812, Marbot tells us how, at Polotsk, Saint-Cyr, with only a long *redingote bleue* for uniform, without epaulets or other insignia, looked more like a professor than a general of the Empire, at the very time when he received the marshal's bâton. The same conclusive testimony asserts that this republican simplicity was still a mark of many men who had fought under Moreau. They were rarely promoted till they became a necessity to the Emperor, and they got used to seeing their juniors of inferior talent promoted over their heads. Gourgaud does not venture to put into Napoleon's mouth the assertion that Moreau's jealousy was the obstacle to his taking command of the Army of the Rhine. It was too notorious that it was the army itself that he feared. Napoleon only said, as Gourgaud reports, that the internal disturbance of the republic (*l'agitation intérieure*) made it unadvisable to leave the capital so early as the opening of the campaign. Yet it is probably true that Moreau declared that he would be no figure-head, and that when the First Consul came to camp, he would leave. The situation was a critical one, and the episode is well worth studying.

La Vie de Jean-Arthur Rimbaud. Par Paterne Berrichon. Paris: Société du *Mercure de France.* 1897.

The life of Arthur Rimbaud has been until now obscured by a fog of uncertainties. His sudden appearance in the literary sky of France was followed by as sudden an extinction, like a sheet of heat lightning, seen for an instant only, and then disappearing in the collied night. M. Berrichon's book dissipates this mystery, and brings Rimbaud's brief and disordered life into full view.

Arthur Rimbaud, the son of a captain in the French army, was born at Charleville in the Ardennes, on October 20, 1854. He was a precocious boy, wild and shy, always in rebellion both at home and in school. At school, however, he showed extraordinary cleverness, and some of his rhetorical exercises, written between the ages of eight and twelve, are really astonishing pieces of composition. Within the next year or two he had read the usual Latin classics, and had translated into French verse Juvenal, Tibullus, and Propertius, besides extensive reading in French literature and more than the usual work in mathematics and science. At fifteen he declared flatly that he would have no more to do with schools, and when his mother, whose turn of mind seems to have held even more closely to the peasant than to the bourgeois type, attempted coercion, he ran away from home to the Ville-Lumière, all ready to commence Parisian and Parnassian. He had not money enough to pay his fare all the way to Paris, but he hid himself and went on with his train, and, at the end of the journey, since he had no ticket to show, he was, of course, arrested, committed to Mazas as a vagabond, and after three days sent home again. This was the first of several escapades of the same sort. Once he set out for Belgium without a sou, hoping to obtain some newspaper work at Charleroi, which he did not get, and so made his way back on foot as a tramp.

When the siege of Paris was raised, he sold his watch, and at once set out for that city. It was cold weather then. He knew no one, and suffered miserably for a week, almost without food and sleep, dragging himself home at last on foot. It was of this period that he wrote in 'Un Saison en Enfer.' Once more, during the Commune, he tried the capital and failed, although some small sums of money, which he wasted at once, were raised for him by certain Communists. Once more he returned to Charleville, and there wrote his astonishing poem, the "Bateau Ivre," a most remarkable production for a boy of his years, or, indeed, for any writer. At this point he introduced himself to Verlaine by writing to him, and received in reply an urgent invitation to return to Paris and become a member of the Verlaine household. His hosts knew nothing of him, and great was the astonishment of Mme. Verlaine to find that the much-looked-for poet was a ragged boy of seventeen. Verlaine's astonishment and delight at discovering him knew no bounds, and at once was begun that singular intimacy about which so much has been written, and of which the obscurer parts have perhaps not yet been fully brought to light. Then followed the only portion of Rimbaud's life that has hitherto been, even imperfectly, known to the public. From October, 1871, to July, 1872, Rimbaud remained in Paris, lodging at Théodore de Banville's, at a hotel in the Rue Racine, and finally in furnished apartments offered him by Verlaine. The thirteen months between July, 1872, and August, 1873, were occupied by the journeys that he made with Verlaine and their very curious experiences of travel in Belgium and in England.

It was upon their return into Belgium that the bond between them was violently broken. Verlaine was eager that their life in common should continue, while Rimbaud had made up his mind to break it off. Verlaine's family also intervened, attempting to reclaim him to household duties. At the end of an excited discussion, Verlaine, finding Rimbaud obdurate, drew a revolver from his pocket and fired, wounding him in the left arm. Then followed a tearful, even a somewhat hysterical, scene of reconciliation. But Rimbaud had not changed his mind, and a new quarrel broke out in the street as the friends were returning from the hospital where the wound had been dressed, when Verlaine fired on him a second time, and pursued him along the sidewalk with a view to further persuasion. For this assault Verlaine was arrested, and received in punishment the two years of seclusion which he describes in 'Mes Prisons.' Rimbaud, though wounded and in the hospital, was expelled from Belgium. He went home for a brief period, and then followed sojourns, none of them long, in England, where he taught French, and in Stuttgart, where he learned German. Here, in 1875, Verlaine sought and found him, and the two poets were together for the last time.

A passion for the Orient had sprung up in Rimbaud's mind, and soon after Verlaine's visit he set out, in characteristic fashion, selling his trunk and travelling by railway as far as his money enabled him to pay for tickets. That was not very far, and he had to foot it over the Saint-Gothard and came down into Italy well worn by cold and hunger. He got no further than Leghorn, where he was obliged to betake himself to a hospital, whence he was returned to France. In 1876 he set out again, this time with more success, owing to some attacks which he made on the family purse, and to a transaction in the Netherlands which was of the nature of bounty-jumping. This brought him at last to the East, to Java and Sumatra. He was quite too proud of soul, his biographer tells us, and had too high a sense of honor and dignity to accept submission, and still less military discipline, and was also endowed by nature with quite too large a moral comprehension to feel any scruple in cheating military tyrants; so, finding himself hindered by army regulations from wandering about as he liked, he took the key of the fields and deserted, working his way westward on an English ship. The captain of this vessel, a man devoid of sensibility, refused to put in at St. Helena—although Rimbaud was eager to visit the spot that was once Napoleon's tomb—and must have been much surprised to see him manifest his individuality by jumping overboard and attempting to swim ashore.

Then followed a year or more in Europe, filled with strange shifts and devices for getting money enough to return to the East. The most honorable of these was perhaps a visit that Rimbaud made to Norway and Sweden as interpreter for a travelling circus. At last he attained his end, and found himself in Egypt, where he began a mercantile life, starting at the very bottom of the ladder. The rest of his years call for little more than bare mention. His natural parts, his cleverness, the ease with which he acquired languages and the like, helped him to some degree of success in money-making. He spent ten years in Asia Minor and in Africa, chiefly at Aden and at Harrar, an African town colonized by the Egyptians and dependent on their government. Literature he completely forgot, writing nothing within the ten years except a "Rapport sur l'Ogadine," communicated by him to the Société de Géographie. In 1890 he was attacked by a lameness having its origin in synovitis, which, through carelessness of himself, became greatly aggravated. His constitution also, no doubt, had been much racked by early excesses and neglects, and his case soon became a very serious one. He was carried to the coast on a litter and regained France, where his leg was amputated. He survived the operation and made a partial recovery, but at the age of thirty-seven he was already worn out, and died in the Hospital of the Conception at Marseilles on the 10th of November, 1891.

Rimbaud will be known in the future, one may suppose, chiefly from his connection with Verlaine. In that curious friendship, which was the tempter and which the lost soul, which was the inspirer or the awakener, and which the inspired or awakened, it may be hard to say. But one cannot on the instant accept M. Berrichon's belief that it was Rimbaud, and not Verlaine, who was the protagonist. Rimbaud was a poet of individuality, who spoke out of his own temperament his own thoughts with force that was not devoid of grace. But his verse can hardly be compared, to his advantage, with the limpid beauty of the stream of Verlaine's poetry where it moves in gentle flow over the shallows, or with the strong rush of its deeper currents.

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Nullification and Secession in the United States. By Edward Payson Powell. Putnams. 1897. Pp. xi, 461.

Mr. Powell has written a book with which students of American history will wish to make themselves acquainted, but which is likely to receive diverse appreciation. Neither a detailed history nor yet a commentary, it partakes somewhat of the nature of both. It will be useful to those only who are already familiar with the general course of events, yet it is often annoyingly careless about statements of fact. It is clearly the fruit of much reading and some thinking; but, even if the author did not warn us that it "is undeniably written for a purpose," one could not go far without feeling sure that Mr. Powell has an axe to grind. Avowing no sympathy for slavery, nullification, or disunion, nor for their supporters, the way in which "certain accepted heroes" are scored would have warmed many an ante-bellum Southern heart. Of respect for received opinions Mr. Powell shows little trace, and both authority and tradition, when weighed in his balance, are often found wanting. The style is vigorous and pungent, and at least makes clear enough the author's point of view, even though it be not successful in winning assent to his opinions.

The main thesis which Mr. Powell sets himself to defend is the not unfamiliar one that the idea of "an indestructible Union composed of indestructible States" not only was not the generally accepted or well understood theory of our Government when the Constitution went into operation, but was repeatedly denied by political leaders, and repudiated by concerted action in different sections of the country at different times. In support of this proposition, he examines in succession the discussions and events connected with the Alien and Sedition acts and the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, the plot for a Northern confederacy in 1803-'4, Burr's conspiracy, the attitude of New England during the war of 1812, the nullification movement in South Carolina in 1832, and, finally, the consummation of secession in 1861. The treatment of these various divisions is of uneven merit, the chapter on nullification in South Carolina being, so far as substance is concerned, rather slight; nor does Mr. Powell confine himself very strictly to the particular subject in hand. On each of his main points, however, he has brought together an array of extracts from letters, speeches, public resolutions, and the like, which, if this were all there was to be said on the subject, might well cause some rattling among the dry bones, and which, in any case, quite suffice to confirm the statement of the preface, that "political righteousness has not been the exclusive property of any one part of the United States."

The trouble, of course, is that there is another side to the case. Mr. Powell writes about the history of ideas of nullification and secession much as a prosecuting attorney argues against the prisoner at the bar; that is, he makes the most of everything favorable to the view for which he is contending, and pursues relentlessly the uttermost ramifications of political or personal motive. It is not without value, and is even, at times, brilliantly done; but it is nothing but special pleading, after all. We can, for example, readily admit, with Mr. Powell, that the Federalists, confronted by the immense task of organizing the new government, made serious mistakes of judgment; that under Adams they pushed matters to the verge; and that, after 1801, their influence was sometimes pernicious, without at the same time conceding that they were so infatuated with England as to be ready to sacrifice the United States, or that their leaders were incompetent and venal because they were not saints. That Hamilton was a restless politician as well as a statesman, and that neither his public nor his private life will bear critical examination at every point, does not detract from the worth of his achievements, or make Burr any more a paragon of virtue. Marshall may well have had his full share of the infirmities common to man, and he may not have been the greatest jurist the world has yet produced, although learned and critical judges have ranked him very high; but we need more evidence and better argument than Mr. Powell has adduced to convince us that Marshall, in reaching the conclusion that it was "the people" who assented to the Constitution, made "a zigzag use of facts" (p. 68).

Mr. Powell, indeed, seems to go out of his way, at times, to minimize the importance of the Supreme Court. His disparagement of Marshall, for the latter's theory of the Constitution and conduct during the Burr trial, is one instance only. As to Mr. Powell's theory of the matter, his position does not appear to differ essentially from that of Jackson. The Supreme Court is a body of learned but fallible men set up to render decisions on certain legal questions; but its opinions have no moral weight unless endorsed by the people. It is the people who pass finally on the meaning of the Constitution; and if the opinion of the Court and the opinion of the people happen to differ, the latter nullifies the former. "The real final authority of our government has been the common sense of the people acting as States. That the people have rectified not only legislative but legal blundering is an historic fact. They correct or negative Congressional work with promptitude, but have learned to be more patient with the Court" (p. 76). Mr. Powell then goes on to show that the life tenure of judges "has served to separate the judiciary from the other branches of Government in spirit and sympathy" (p. 78); that "it was a general suspicion of the judiciary department that made the acceptance of the Constitution so very close in 1789" (p. 79); and that, in the successive periods of our history, "the Supreme Court has in every instance thrown its influence against popular rights," and "has already cast its wavering voice, in the social struggle, for the wealthy as a class" (p. 80). How far this is either correct history or reasonable interpretation, we leave the reader to judge.

We have called attention to these apparently subsidiary points in Mr. Powell's book partly because they show the spirit in which he has written, and partly because we are unable to think that, on his main point, he has achieved any marked success. Indeed, we are inclined to doubt whether, along the line he has pursued, success is to be had. That the controversy over the earliest theories as to the nature of the Constitution still goes on, is largely due to the persistent effort to discover a theory where none existed. The framers of the Constitution were not engaged in elaborating a political philosophy, but in founding a government. Whether it was to endure but for a day, or whether it might haply be perpetual, no one knew, and some hardly dared to think. What they did know well, however, was that the Constitution must be, in some important respects, a work of compromise, and that the simpler its provisions, the more likely was it to be given a chance to live. They commended it to the country as a practical adjustment of serious interests; and they laid stress on the practical benefits likely to flow from it, and not on its harmony with this or that theory of sovereignty or allegiance. Any clear and general understanding that the Union thus created was to be indissoluble, that no State could withdraw from it under any circumstances short of general consent, or that the era of experiment was passed, cannot be shown, to entire satisfaction, by historical inquiry; there is too much evidence on each side. What has come about is that the perpetuity of the Union is seen to rest, not upon the fact that at a particular time it was declared to be perpetual, but upon the fact that, the circumstances being what they have been, it cannot possibly be conceived of as anything else. It is the nascent consciousness of a national existence grounded in the nature of things, and struggling to establish itself against political theories radically opposed to it, that gives to the movements which Mr. Powell has studied their vividness and importance; and it is because, as we think, Mr. Powell has failed to see this that he has failed to make to his subject a contribution of especial worth.

We note a few of the rather too numerous misstatements or misprints. The Jay treaty was proclaimed February 29, and not March 3, 1796 (p. 58). The Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 preceded those of Virginia by more than five weeks, instead of following them, as seems to be implied on p. 63. The Constitution does not fix the membership of the Supreme Court at nine (p. 74), or at any other number. The name of Jonathan Russell, one of the American commissioners in the negotiation of the treaty of Ghent, appears as John Russell (p. 225). It was Gov. Harrison of Indiana Territory, not of the Indian Territory (p. 161), to whom Burr had a letter. Hamilton's report on manufactures was submitted in 1791, not in 1787 (p. 256). Garrison did not denounce the Constitution as "a *league* with hell" (p. 336), nor did "a poor truckman" "seize a stake and drive off the mob" which was dragging Garrison through the street in Boston (p. 337). Lovejoy was killed in 1837, not in 1836.

The New England Primer. Edited by Paul Leicester Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

It was a pleasant conceit which led Mr. Ford to give to his elegantly sober volume a passing resemblance to the memorable booklet upon which he has lavished so much scholarly care. Charles Kingsley, in substance, said long ago that the Puritan had made his own reticence in outward garb the pattern for gentlemen of succeeding ages; and one is reminded of this good saying, in contrasting the pathetic humility of a 'New England Primer' with the decorous refinement of this monument reared to its memory.

After the pursuit of many paths of letters, Mr. Ford returns once more to bibliography, and the present tribute to his first love is worthy. There is a definite satisfac-

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tion in recognizing in this book a finished task, something which calls for no doing a second time. Perchance there may turn up, though it is improbable, one or two more issues of the Primer; a few more rays of light may yet be shed on its earliest history; but such discoveries cannot affect the permanent soundness of Mr. Ford's book. To the mere precision and usual excessive detail of bibliography Mr. Ford has always brought a historian's sagacity and discrimination to such a degree that he has actually lifted a somewhat depressing if necessary science to higher possibilities. Not that he is wholly alone in this accomplishment, but what he has done, has been done in a characteristic way. Ill-content with the passive excellence of a full list of primers actually seen or conjectured, and of the helpful adjunct of old-time advertisements which throw light on the subject, Mr. Ford has hunted down the probable author (if a work so essentially a growth may be said to have an author) and undoubted first publisher of the Primer. Benjamin Harris was an over-zealous Protestant publisher who came from London to Boston about the year 1686, and there began to make and sell books. Some time between 1687 and 1690 Mr. Ford fixes as the date of the first issue of the immortal Primer; of a "second impression, enlarged" there is the satisfactory proof of an advertisement. Harris had already published in England the 'Protestant Tutor,' which is shown to have been the predecessor of the 'New England Primer.' It is a fair assumption that he changed the name and cut down the size of the 'Tutor' to meet in a business-like way the pride and purses of New England. From a unique copy in the British Museum a facsimile is given by Mr. Ford of the 'New English Tutor,' issued by Harris some time between 1702 and 1714, which in all probability contains the same text as the 'New England Primer' of that period, and was printed in England under the changed title to increase the sale. If such conjectures are correct, Mr. Ford has produced the earliest accessible text of the Primer, besides giving a facsimile of the earliest known issue of the Primer itself, that of 1727, from the Lenox copy.

It was always by its best-known title that the Primer won its way, not only here, but in England and Scotland. For one hundred and fifty years its popularity was great, both as a text-book for primary training and as an elementary spiritual guide. Mr. Ford thinks that as many as three million copies were sold. Out of this mass the salvage has been astonishingly small—less than fifty copies, representing less than forty editions of the eighteenth century. No sure vestige of an issue of the seventeenth century survives. To private collectors who seem to have opened their treasures freely, the sumptuous volume before us owes its wealth of facsimiles and reproductions. It is noticeable, however, that the Boston Public Library, which in the nature of things should be richest in such material, seems to have rendered Mr. Ford no assistance. Full justice is done to the real merits of the little book. Not sympathizing with the conditions which nourished it and gave it force, Mr. Ford is so far friendly that he seems even to lament the decline and fall of its influence, when milder doctrines began to enter and the sincere milk of the word was slyly watered with utilitarianism and an easier theology. To-day the Primer is sought only by reason of its extreme rarity, and excites only an amused curiosity. Yet it was not ill-conceived, only crude. What work it had to do it did marvellously well, and it may safely be ranked with Webster's Spelling-Book and Colburn's 'Intellectual Arithmetic,' as one of the inspired works of American educational literature.

Some verses composed by one Robert Smith have long been ascribed to John or "Mathewe" Rogers. They seem to have been dear to the Puritan heart, but, in declaring his excellent discovery of the true authorship, Mr. Ford becomes a little heated at this "piece of sectarian garbling and falsehood." It seems harsh to blame a whole sect for an error attributable probably to stupidity rather than malevolence. However, Puritanism is more or less of a red rag to Mr. Ford, who lets himself wander from his road to proclaim the great "percentage of crime" (p. 152) due to the "lawlessness and immorality" of early New England. Mr. Ford is too keen a historian not to see the fallacy of comparing—for it always comes to mean that—the Massachusetts Bay, where, from the start, court and other records were kept with reasonable fulness, with other colonies where the archives furnish no comparable information. In estimating the defects of the Puritan character, one element of it is always to be borne in mind: all early records and historical writings reveal an almost morbid willingness to tell the worst that can be said. Crimes and social weaknesses of every sort were confessed with astonishing zeal. There may have been spiritual pride in such candor, but there certainly was an absence of worldly reticence and hypocrisy. The worse was seldom made to appear the better reason, and we have the Puritans' own word for it that they were desperately wicked.

Dreamers of the Ghetto. By I. Zangwill. Harper & Bros.

An application of the methods employed by Landor in his 'Imaginary Conversations,' and by Louisa Mühlbach in her historical novels, to some more or less famous Jewish worthies and unworthies of recent times, may redound to an author's credit for eccentricity but not sanity of genius. The result could not fail to be bizarre, particularly when, throughout, the jester's cap and bells seem to compete for mastery with the cynic's wail. The stories, too, it must be confessed, read better when they appeared "syndicated" in various magazines and weeklies than in the present collection; the tricks of phrase and style, the exaggerations in language and sentiment, the threadbare plush of rhetoric, and the flimsy ornamentation follow too rapidly and self-consciously as the chapters are successively analyzed. If the author, in addition to his undeniable gifts, had only possessed the gift of condensation, his work would have lost in bulk and exuberance, but it would have gained largely in merit.

Unlike novelists of the Ghetto such as Kompert, Bernstein, Mosenthal, Kohn, and Franzos, not to mention Berthold Auerbach, whose romance of 'Spinoza' anticipated Mr. Zangwill's 'The Master of Lenses,' the author of 'Dreamers of the Ghetto' essays a more ambitious rôle. They were, as a class, content to paint cameos or genre sketches of old-time Jewish life, and let the pictures, fantastic or realistic, speak for themselves. Mr. Zangwill aims at philosophy as well as fiction. We fear that he is too much inoculated with the very Aryanism which he deplores as ominous for the Jew, and is too much of a waverer himself to be a thoroughly trustworthy guide in any philosophy of Judaism based upon the careers of the heroes in fact and fustian whom he exploits. How he can term Lassalle, Heine, and Disraeli "dreamers of the Ghetto," is a mystery indeed, especially in the case of Disraeli, who was a devout son of the Established Church, and never entered an English synagogue except when he acted as witness at a wedding of one of the Rothschilds. It was only after these worthies left the Ghetto—if they ever really belonged to it—that they became famous. Had they remained Ghetto youths, history might have been silent about them, and a Zangwill might never have employed them for text or pretext.

The volume, however, has its value in familiarizing the general public with a comparatively untrodden field—the inner history and workings of the Jews of recent centuries, and the currents and counter-currents among them due to opposing tendencies of the times. Under the guise of fiction, a goodly amount of modern Jewish history is thus unconsciously taught, which possibly can just now be imbibed in no other way. The author, too, is candid in exposing the faults of his brethren, and does not unduly idealize them. His own chief defect—which is becoming too painfully evident in the younger school of English fiction—is his quality of exaggeration. This makes his book glaringly melodramatic, and gives his "dreamers" often the tones and attitudes characteristic of burlesque. From this charge we must exclude his "From a Mattress Grave," which is an exquisite vindication of Heine—a bit of Heine come to life again.

Outlines of Psychology. By W. Wundt. Translated, with the coöperation of the author, by C. H. Judd. Leipzig: Engelmann; New York: Stechert. 1897. Pp. xviii, 342.

In this convenient little book Prof. Wundt has prepared a work "written primarily for the purpose of furnishing my students with a brief manual to supplement the lectures on psychology." It is a first-rate introduction to the more elaborate work of its distinguished author, and will have currency as fulfilling that function. The translation seems to be well done, and the glossary of terms appended by the translator (German, with the English equivalents) will be serviceable.

With so much description and commendation of the book, a word or two of criticism may be indulged in expressing the reviewer's reaction against what may be called the *Wundt'sche Anschauung und Methode.* In the first place, the abstract and semi-scholastic way of drawing distinctions which pervades the 'Outlines,' is a serious drawback to its usefulness. No one who is well read in the recent books, in which concrete fact is kept so to the front that it controls abstract exposition, can read this one through without weariness; and in the case of the junior students, for whom it is designed in its English dress, it would tend to displace that wholesome obligation to the concrete which we are just getting well established in the instruction of our laboratories and experimental courses. The other point which should be spoken of with equal

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plainness is Prof. Wundt's mild attack of the "mania for naming." Along with the abstract distinctions with which the treatment of almost all the topics bristles, we find new applications constantly made of psychological, popular, and scientific terms. Every pair of phases of this or that has its special pair of names, by which afterwards the particular phases are known; so that the student has not only to see the distinction as he goes along, but to preserve the names for it with all exactitude in his memory. This has two vicious results: first, it creates a special Wundtian terminology—a terminology in the manufacture of which the author seems to have gone to little pains to keep himself in touch with the historical usages of the science, and which forces students who have worked over other text-books to correlate painfully his terminology with that already learned. And, second, it fosters the habit of mind—possibly the most unfortunate of all the "idols of the den"—of taking a name and its correlate for an explanation of the distinction which they characterize. This affliction, under which psychology has so long had to labor, is still the *onus maximum* of psychological science. It is currently braced up by all sorts of theoretical pleas, which are nothing less than apologies for inability to find explaining principles. For example, as soon as one goes to biology or neurology for explanations, he is arrested by the cry, "You are deserting the 'psychological standpoint,' you are no longer doing legitimate work; psychological explanations must be purely psychological; anthropology has its own devotees, so have biology and neurology; leave them to their flesh-pots!"—and so the weary describing, and concatenating, and comparing, and naming goes on. Or, if one sights a larger truth, something which may fairly be called "philosophical," he is reined up with equal vigor, and told that no theorist shall inherit the psychological kingdom of heaven. The James-Lange theory of emotion is absurd. Why? Because it is "physiological"! The "inheritance of acquired characters" is true. Why? Because all other accounts of mental continuity in evolution are unpsychological. And so it goes.

It must be said, however, without reserve, that Professor Wundt does not sin on the side of inhospitality to legitimate theory. In his various books he shifts his point of view. Indeed, he is one of the first among living psychologists in the breadth of his interests and the variety of his contributions to current theory. In this he furnishes a salutary example.

Through South Africa. By Henry M. Stanley, M.P. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This book is made up of letters written to a newspaper called *South Africa*, with the addition of a map, an introductory chapter, and a number of photographs. Mr. Stanley attended the celebration at Bulawayo held when the railroad was completed to that city, an event which may well deserve commemoration. In March, 1896, this railway extended about 880 miles north from Cape Town, and in November, 1897, the remainder, 480 miles, was finished. The engineering difficulties seem to have been not numerous, and although an elevation of 4,500 feet is attained, there are few steep grades. Mr. Stanley's train made the distance in ninety hours, and he declares that its motion was wonderfully smooth and steady. The rails are laid on iron tires. The people of Bulawayo, of course, expect great results from the building of this road, and extensions are already projected. Mr. Stanley writes as if this settlement might become a second Chicago, but his arguments are not very convincing. They amount to no more than saying that there is a vast amount of unoccupied land around Bulawayo, which is at present a desert, but which might be made productive if great companies could be formed to irrigate it, and if they could find the water wherewith to do so. The conditions which created Chicago were very different from this.

As Mr. Stanley saw little of the country except what was visible from a car-window, his impressions are not very extensive, nor are they interesting. His speculations as to the future development of South Africa have no such basis as to command our attention, and his recommendations as to the measures to be pursued are often puerile and presumptuous. We find none of his letters particularly agreeable reading, but the most repulsive are those from Johannesburg, which are in the main given up to coarse abuse of President Krüger. This worthy is doubtless a perverse and oppressive ruler, possibly a corrupt one; but the violent language employed by Mr. Stanley in describing him arouses the sympathy of the reader, nor are such facts presented as would give reason for this vituperation. On the whole, these letters give the impression of much ignorance on the writer's part of what he undertakes to describe; what he has to say is hardly worth saying, and he does not say it very well. It would be a waste of time for any one who can procure Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions' to pay attention to those of Mr. Stanley.

Memory and its Cultivation. By F. W. Edridge-Green, M.D., F.R.C.S. (International Scientific Series, No. 78.) D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 311.

This author recognizes thirty-seven faculties of the mind, differing in but few particulars from the thirty-seven accepted by the phrenologists, and located like theirs in the cortex of the brain. This is utterly at variance with all the results of the last thirty years' study of the functions of the brain. Still worse, although Dr. Edridge-Green acknowledges that memory is the most important of all the powers, he places it in the corpus striatum and optic thalamus—that is, in organs between the cortex and the spinal cord. Two chapters are devoted to arguing these positions, yet the only reference to the experimental researches of our time is one brief and vague mention of Ferrier's work. No reasons are put forward which are not either old or insignificant.

The opening sentence of the book is, "What is memory?" This is pertinent; but the true answer is not given. The phenomena of memory are nothing but those of the phenomena of association by contiguity, in which the suggested idea brings with it so much of its environment as to be referred to the past. Hence, whatever cerebral explanation is given for association in general must be applied to the chief constituent of memory. Dr. Edridge-Green (p. 145) appears to locate association by contiguity in the optic thalamus. Considering that association by contiguity is nothing but mental habit, and that habit-taking is one of the fundamental attributes of protoplasm in general, the theory of this work could not well be narrower or more arbitrary.

Although the theoretical part of the book is so unimportant, it might be hoped that some wise counsels would be given about the cultivation of memory. All we find, however, is a series of twenty-two mnemonic rules. Though there are so many, they omit some well-known principles, such as that of the summation of stimuli. Among the rules given are a few which will probably be of some value. Others, though well enough, are trite. Still others are both trite and pernicious, because they recommend the burdening of the memory with utterly trivial and useless associations. Thus, we are advised to remember that the first Roman invasion of Britain took place 55 B. C. by associating it with the vocables "Juliud Cæsud," and remembering that the letter *d* means 5. Is it not much easier to remember that it was seven years after the defeat of Catiline and seven years before Pharsalia? The good old way of learning a few important and familiar dates *per se*, and the rest by their intervals between those, can hardly be improved.

Modern Architecture: A Book for Architects and the Public. By H. Heathcote Statham, Fellow of the Institute of British Architects, Editor of the *Builder*, etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

The keynote of Mr. Statham's book is common sense. It contains good instruction for those who are candidates for such instruction, whether laymen or architectural students, discussing the planning and in the rough the designing of buildings in country and town, without concerning itself much for the technical forms of architecture, with abundant illustrations from the buildings of various countries, and with a catholicity of judgment which we do not always find in the writers of a country that has an architecture of its own. If we notice at all that Anglocentric view of the universe from which Englishmen find it hard to get away, it is when Mr. Statham sees in every Parliament-house an appropriation of the idea, which he patents to Mr. Barry, of using a central hall of entrance connected with a great chamber on either hand—one of the obvious expedients which belong to the world, and have been used by it at many times and places. This is very much as if one should accuse every musician who writes a perfect cadence of plagiarizing from Haydn. It is not unnatural that Mr. Statham should prefer English planning to French, perhaps not strange that he should say that "the French architects are mostly very bad planners": we have known French architects to say the same thing of English. Possibly architects not French, who have studied French work, though they might not quite agree with either, would on the whole give the preference to French planning. It is very much a question of the comparative values one sets on details of convenience, of which the French are ready to sacrifice a good deal, and of elegance, for which the English have little natural gift. It should be remembered that all planning is a matter of compromise. He succeeds best who combines the greatest number of the possible excellences, and who knows best what to sacrifice; as to this last, opinions will differ, as habits do.

In spite of an inclination, which is common to writers on this subject, to lay down law

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for design in cases where there is more question of an artist's instinct than of doctrine, Mr. Statham's criticism seems to us in general very judicious. It shows not only clear ideas of what works well in practice, but an eye to the artistic qualities of design, and especially to qualities of stateliness and dignity which we too often miss in the work of English and American architects.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, W. F. The New Testament Story. Retold for Young People. Macmillan.
Argyll, Duke of. What is Science? Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bailey, L. H. The Pruning-Book. Macmillan.
Banks, Rev. L. A. The Christian Gentleman. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75c.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Paul and his Friends. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Carlyle, Thomas. History of Frederick the Great. Vol. V. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.
Cawein, Madison. Shapes and Shadows. Poems. R. H. Russell. $1.25.
Dawe, Carlton. A Bride of Japan. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
De Windt, Harry. Through the Gold-Fields of Alaska to Bering Straits. Harpers. $2.50.
Edwards, R. W. K. The Mermaid of Inish-Uig. London: Edward Arnold.
Elliott, Sarah B. The Durket Sperret. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Faber, W. F. Henry VIII. and the Reformation. Whittaker. 15c.
Faguet, Emile. Drame Ancien, Drame Moderne. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Fenton, Geffraie. Certain Tragical Discourses of Bandello. 2 vols. [Tudor Translations.] London: David Nutt.
Garland, Hamlin. The Spirit of Sweetwater. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Green, Anna K. Lost Man's Lane. Putnams. $1.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VIII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hay, Col. John. In Praise of Omar: An Address. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
Henderson, John. Practical Electricity and Magnetism. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Higginson, Col. T. W. Cheerful Yesterdays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hill, J. W. The Purification of Public Water Supplies. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Hobbes, John Oliver. Tales. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Holbrook, Rev. J. C. Recollections of a Nonagenarian. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.
James, Lionel. The Indian Frontier War. 1897. Scribners. $3.50.
Johnson, Lionel. Ireland, with Other Poems. London: Elkin Mathews; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1898. Macmillan. $3.
Kingsley, Charles. The Water-Babies. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Lee, Albert. Four for a Fortune. Harpers.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LIV. Stanhope—Stovin. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lowsley, Lieut.-Col. B. Whist of the Future. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
MacArthur, Rev. R. S. Current Questions for Thinking Men. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Maitland, Prof. F. W. Township and Borough. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Matthew Arnold and the Spirit of the Age. Papers of the English Club of Sewanee. Putnams. $1.25.
McIntosh, Wm. Philistine Sermons. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Shop.
Meyer, R. M. Goethe. [Geisteshelden.] Berlin: Ernest Hofmann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Mifflin, Lloyd. The Slopes of Helicon, and Other Poems. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Nicoll, W. R. James Macdonnell, Journalist. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Ohnet, Georges. La Fille du Député. Henry Holt & Co. 50c.
Oxenden, Rev. Ashton. The Earnest Communicant. E. R. Herrick & Co. 25c.
Page, T. N. Two Prisoners. R. H. Russell. $1.
Peters, J. A. Two Odd Girls. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Potter, Rev. H. C. Addresses to Women Engaged in Church Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Rawlinson, Prof. George. A Memoir of Major-General Sir Henry Creswicke Rawlinson. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Ryley, Madeleine L. An American Citizen. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Sedgwick, Anne D. The Dull Miss Archinard. Scribners. $1.25.
Selections from Burns. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 35c.
Seward, A. C. Fossil Plants. Vol. I. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Shakspere's Sonnets. Boston: Copeland & Day. $2.50.
Sharp, Evelyn. The Making of a Prig. John Lane. $1.50.
Sienkiewicz, Henryk. The Third Woman. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Six Jolis Contes. Boston: L'Echo de la Semaine. 25c.
Smith, F. H. Caleb West, Master Diver. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Spofford, Harriet P. Priscilla's Love-Story. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Stevenson, R. L. A Lowden Sabbath Morn. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.75.
Sutphen, W. G. Van T. The Golficide, and Other Tales of the Fair Green. Harpers. $1.
Thackeray, W. M. Vanity Fair. [Biographical Edition.] Harpers. $1.50.
The Coptic Version of the New Testament. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Veysey, A. H. A Pedigree in Pawn. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Histoire et Poésie. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Wenley, Prof. R. M. The Preparation for Christianity in the Ancient World. F. H. Revell Co. 75c.
Wentworth, W. A Member of Congress. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Westcott, Prof. J. H. Selected Letters of Pliny. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Willey, F. O. The Laborer and the Capitalist. Equitable Publishing Co.
Wilson, Francis. The Eugene Field I Knew. Scribners. $1.25.

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